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The Influences Affecting Curriculum Change In Selected Educational Agencies Employing Consultants In The Social Sciences Through NDEA Title III-B

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THE INFLUENCES AFFECTING CURRICULUM CHANGE IN
SELECTED EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES EMPLOYING
CONSULTANTS IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES
THROUGH NDEA TITLE III-B

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Faculty of the School of Education
The University of the Pacific

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
Madge Arlene Young

June 1969

THE INFLUENCES AFFECTING CURRICULUM CHANGE IN SELECTED
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Abstract of Dissertation

It was the purpose of this study to identify the influences that contributed to bringing about curriculum change in selected educational agencies which employed consultants in the social sciences through NDEA Title III-B projects. The research attempted to find the ways districts planned, organized, and implemented curriculum change through the use of the NDEA consultants. It focused on the procedures, interrelationships, and interactions taking place within the structure of the projects and the agencies involved in accomplishing these projects. Neither the amount nor the direction of the changes was the intent of the study.

The investigation was a field study which collected data in depth in the form of case studies of selected districts and their NDEA Title III-B projects in the social sciences. The field, which was studied inclusively, was the urban school districts within a sixty-mile radius of Stockton, California, which had projects during the school years 1965-1966 and 1966-1967 funded under Title III-B in civics, economics, geography, and/or history for elementary grades, K-6. Five districts with six projects met the criteria in the geographic area selected. The data were gathered from: (1) the project applications; (2) interviews with district personnel; (3) interviews with the consultants; (4) informal evaluation reports filed by the districts with the Bureau of NDEA for the State of California; (5) visits to classrooms; (6) letters, minutes of committee meetings, agendas, and other written records from both the districts and the consultants. The information collected was analyzed for the processes, patterns, and relationships involved as school districts engaged in activities for curriculum change.

The conclusions from the study included the following: (1) the NDEA Title III-B funds initiate curriculum change; (2) investment of additional local funds facilitates curriculum change; (3) responsibilities for successful curriculum change in a district lie outside the line and staff organization, but channels of communication are also always open to and from the line and staff; (4) curriculum change occurs when the administrative leaders of a district have an interest in curriculum and possess functional leadership qualities; (5) curriculum change requires administrative assistance within the district; (6) all other things being equal, change occurs whether the administration for the proposed change is centrally or decentrally organized; (7) teachers are active participants in facilitating curriculum change; (8) curriculum change occurs when teachers are carefully selected to work for curriculum development and other teachers are made to feel wanted in the study; (9) open channels of communication are essential for bringing about change; (10) the consultants are change agents; (11) consultants are selected primarily for their competence and experience.

The findings in this study suggest the need for further research to: (1) evaluate the curriculum changes initiated by NDEA Title III-B for effectiveness and direction of change; (2) determine the sociological factors within the school district's supporting community which facilitate or block curriculum change; (3) determine whether the size of the urban school affects local efforts for curriculum change. The findings also suggest the possibility for further study to: (1) survey the person-to-person differences among consultants for significant variants that did not appear in this study where all consultants seemed to function well if not blocked by imposed conditions; (2) survey ways a consultant is selected to identify further some of the characteristics desired in change agents; (3) survey many districts to verify certain of the items that this limited study only suggests.

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Appreciation is due Dr. Lloyd King, who served as chairman for this study and as advisor for the writer during her program of graduate studies, for his counsel, prodding, and approval for this study. He spent countless hours reading, modifying and improving every aspect of the study.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

The National Defense Education Act of 1958, hereinafter referred to as NDEA, provided financial assistance in various forms to States and their subdivisions as well as to individuals. Of the eleven Titles in the Act which enumerated the provisions and areas for funding, Title III provided assistance to schools in the social sciences, namely, civics, economics, geography and history. Consultant services in these specific social sciences were made available to the schools of California under NDEA Title III-B as an extension of the supervisory and related services of the California State Department of Education. Under this Title, school districts planned for the consultant services to supplement their own programs.

I. THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem

In the school year 1967-1968 the use of NDEA consultants in the social sciences as part of the supervisory and related services had been in effect for two full years and was in the third year of funding. No assessment of these services had been accomplished. It was the purpose of this investigation to find out (1) how selected elementary schools in California had utilized the consultant services in the social sciences available under Title III-B of NDEA; (2) what processes were in operation within the districts with projects funded

by Title III-B; and (3) what interrelationships developed from the cooperative efforts of districts, consultants and the California State Bureau of NDEA. This was a depth study of selected field situations where NDEA Title III-B projects had been funded for social science consultants. It did not attempt nor intend to evaluate the projects or to generalize from samples chosen to be representative.

The question to be answered was: What influences contributed to bringing about curriculum change in selected educational agencies which employed consultants in the social sciences through NDEA Title III-B?

Related problems and questions needed to be considered. It was necessary to determine what variables were operating within a district when an outside consultant was used to "improve instruction in the designated critical subjects"¹ and then find the relationships which existed between these variables.

One aspect of the question concerned the methods or strategies employed by districts in using consultants to bring about change in instruction. How did consultant services fit into the long-range program plans for the social sciences in the local districts? What planning preceded the request for funding? How was the project continued or followed-up? Did the districts feel that the time allotted for consultant services was inadequate or that the help of a consultant was of

¹ California State Department of Education, National Defense Education Act, Title III Manual of Information and Instructions (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1966), p. 3.

little value for them to achieve their goals in the social sciences?

Were scholars from the social sciences requested more than those from education? How did the consultants contribute to the projects?

The study was guided by these questions to identify the variables and to discover the relationships.

Importance of the Study

Since no assessment of consultant services under NDEA, Title III-B had been made, it was important that the variables and relationships in operation during the accomplishment of a project be identified so that a measurement of usefulness might be facilitated.

It was important to the Department of Education of the State of California to find out if consultant services in the social sciences were being used in ways to improve instruction.

Since the purpose for Title III-B projects was to improve the quality of instruction, it was assumed that educational agencies undertaking a Title III-B project were attempting to bring about some kinds of changes and were, therefore, groups in transition. The intensive study of such groups is a possible way of gaining insight into the process of change and into the characteristics of contiguous stages of development.² As preparations were under way by the State Department of Education for introducing a newly developed Framework for the Social Sciences, it was natural that there should be interest in the

²Claire Selltiz, Maric Jahoda, Morton Deutsch, and Stuart W. Cook, Research Methods in Social Relations (San Francisco: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966), pp. 59-65.

patterns or strategies used in planning for change.

II. DELIMITATIONS AND DEFINITIONS OF TERMS USED

Delimitations

The study was limited to funded projects pertaining to the elementary grades, K-6, in the social sciences (civics, economics, geography, history) in urban school districts within a sixty mile radius of Stockton for the school years 1965-1966 and 1966-1967.

Although all of NDEA Title III included the social sciences, only the consultant services for the social sciences as provided by Title III-B were considered in the study. Assessment of the consultant services was restricted to identifying processes, influences for change, and relationships implicit in the ways districts utilized the services.

Definitions of Terms Used

Change. To undergo transformation, transition, or substitution. To make a difference in some particular. Change implies making either an essential difference often amounting to a loss of original identity or a substitution of one thing for another. Change may be qualitative in that it may be the noticeable alteration that makes something better or worse.³

Consultant. A person who gives professional advice or services in the area of his specialty. NDEA consultants were qualified specialists who might work with local districts. They could be

³ Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary (Springfield, Massachusetts: G. and C. Merriam Company, 1965), p. 139.

professors; employees of the State Department of Education; administrators, supervisors, or teachers from school districts or county offices; or specialists from industry.⁴

Metropolitan School District. A school district with a supporting community of 75,000 or more inhabitants.⁵

Minimum Day. The least number of minutes which may be taught at a specified grade level and be legally classified as a full school day. In California the minimum school day for kindergarten was 130 minutes; for grades 1-3 was 200 teaching minutes; for grades 4-6 was 220 minutes.

Process. A way of getting and using scientific knowledge. It is a human endeavor, a search for satisfying explanations and unifying principles.⁶

Product. One product consists of the knowledge, facts and principles, generalizations, and conceptual themes of the social sciences. To acquire these learnings is to acquire a product.

A more tangible product is also a possibility. For example, a set of units would comprise a related product which utilizes the knowledge, principles and conceptual themes which are the structure (product) or the social sciences.

⁴California State Department of Education, op. cit., p. 16.

⁵Gerald Newmark, Ray L. Sweigert, Jr. and others, A Field Test of Three Approaches to the Teaching of Spanish in Elementary Schools, Cooperative Research Project No. D-177, Final Report (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1966), p. 8.

⁶Robert Stollberg, "A Perspective on Science Teaching for Teachers," Revised Science Course of Study for Yolo County (Woodland, California: Office of the Superintendent of Yolo County Schools, 1965), p. iii.

Project. A proposal submitted for Title III-B funds by a local educational agency, or agencies, or other public school authority below the State level. Such a proposal contained a description of the grade level and subject area to be considered; the specific purposes for requesting the services; the number of days required; the name of the consultant might be included; and information to assist in evaluation of the project.

Rural School District. Rural school districts were defined as all those that failed to qualify either as urban or metropolitan districts.⁷

Steering Committee. A managing or directing committee which is a sub-group of the total committee.⁸ The members of a steering committee are representative of the total working committee or group.

Strategy. The means for causing an advocated innovation to become successfully (i. e. durably) installed. A careful plan or method; the art of employing or devising plans toward a goal.⁹

Structure. Something made up of interdependent parts in a definite pattern or organization. Bruner described it in this way:

Grasping the structure of a subject is understanding it in a way that permits many other things to be related to it meaningfully. To learn structure, in short, is to learn how things are related.¹⁰

⁷Newmark, loc. cit.

⁸Webster, op. cit., p. 858.

⁹Matthew B. Miles, "Educational Innovation: The Nature of the Problem," Innovation in Education, Matthew B. Miles, editor (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 18-19; Webster's Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary, op. cit., p. 866.

¹⁰Jerome Bruner, The Process of Education (New York: Vintage Books, 1960), p. 7.

System. A bounded collection of interdependent parts, devoted to the accomplishment of some goal or goals, with the parts maintained in a steady state in relation to each other and the environment by means of (1) standard modes of operation, and (2) feedback from the environment about the consequences of system actions.¹¹

Temporary System. Structures that operate both within permanent organizations and between them; their members hold from the start the basic assumption that--at some more or less clearly defined point in time--they will cease to be.

Some temporary systems which may be used with consultants include workshops, conferences, conventions, retreats, training institutes. The consulting system formed by a consultant and a client group or organization can be thought of as a temporary arrangement where a permanent organization has a newcomer attached to it for a (usually specified) period of time, thus forming, in effect, a new system.¹²

Urban School District. An urban school district does not qualify as a metropolitan district, but is located in a population center, incorporated or not, of 2,500 or more inhabitants, or is located in the densely settled urban fringe of a metropolitan center.¹³

¹¹ Miles, op. cit., p. 13.

¹² Matthew B. Miles, "On Temporary Systems," Innovation in Education, Matthew B. Miles, editor (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 437-438.

¹³ Newmark, loc. cit.

III. RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

A study initiated in 1961 by the California State Department of Education assessed the impact of NDEA, Title III and verified that changes in instruction in mathematics, science and foreign languages had resulted from school districts' participation in Title III. Neither the amount of change, the kind of change nor the processes whereby these changes came about were identified, nor were they a part of the study. Frank D. Largent, Chief, Bureau of NDEA Administration, California State Department of Education, in the introduction to the study said:

A serious limitation of this and similar studies is that reliable information on the effectiveness of education, recent changes in education, and the causes of those changes is not available . . . At a time when our education is clearly perceived, our educational achievements are not clearly perceived at all. Consequently, public policy for education is made largely on the basis of assumptions, impressions, and incomplete evidence.

In the future, policy with respect to education will be based increasingly on results of controlled scientific experiments and field studies . . . ¹⁴

This investigation, then, which is a field study examining the processes, patterns and interrelationships in NDEA Title III-B, should complement the study done by the State Department of Education. The field study has been used most frequently by social scientists who work in relatively unformulated areas where there is little experience to serve as a guide. ¹⁵ The field study has been the tool of the anthro-

¹⁴David N. Evans and I. T. Johnson, The Impact in California of NDEA Titles III, V, VIII (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1967), p. ix-x.

¹⁵Selltiz, et. al., op. cit., p. 59.

pologist in studying primitive societies. The sociologist has used the procedure to look at his own society. The social psychologist, also, has adapted the field study for his more quantitative approach. From such studies, the anthropologist and the sociologist make insightful interpretations of social processes.

Although field studies are similar to national surveys in opening up new possibilities for the development of social psychology and the social sciences, there are practical differences which call for different skills and techniques. The survey has greater scope and the field study has greater depth. The survey tries to be representative of some known universe and attempts to be adequately and faithfully representative of a larger population. The field study, on the other hand, is more concerned with a thorough account of the processes under investigation than with their typicality in a larger universe, more importantly, the field investigation attempts to study a single community or group in terms of the interrelations of the parts of the structure and of the interactions taking place.¹⁶

Katz elaborated on field studies in this way:

Roughly speaking, studies are of two major types: exploratory and hypothesis-testing. The exploratory study attempts to see what is there rather than to predict the relationships that will be found. It represents the earlier stage of a science. From its findings may come knowledge about important relationships between variables, but the more definite proof of these relationships comes from hypothesis-testing. . . . But it is nonetheless true that the great strength of the field study is its inductive procedure,

¹⁶ Daniel Katz, "Field Studies," *Research Methods in the Behavioral Sciences*, Leon Festinger and Daniel Katz, editors (San Francisco: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1966), p. 57.

its potentiality for discovering significant variables and basic relations that would never be found if we were confined to research dictated by a hypothetical-deductive model.¹⁷

The investigation herein reported was a field study which collected data in depth, in the form of case studies of selected districts and their NDEA Title III-B projects in the social sciences. It applied a form of research developed and employed by other social sciences to an educational problem. It focused upon the interrelations and the interactions taking place within the structure of the projects and the agencies involved in accomplishing those projects.

The purpose of NDEA Title III-B was to provide at no cost to the districts, a limited number of days of consultant services to improve the quality of instruction in the subjects enumerated in the Act. Consultant services were to supplement the local resources.¹⁸

The purpose of this study was to identify the influences which facilitate or retard change in instruction in the social sciences that appeared in the selected districts as they accomplished their NDEA Title III-B projects. Neither the amount nor the direction of the changes was the intent of the study, as this was not a survey.

IV. PLAN OF PRESENTATION

In this chapter the problem, delimitations and definitions of terms used, and rationale for the study were discussed. The chapter

¹⁷Katz, Ibid., pp. 74-75.

¹⁸California State Department of Education, op. cit., p. 16.

dealt with the differences between an exploratory field study and a hypothesis-testing design.

Chapter II contains an explanation of backgrounds of the study and the guidelines for projects. Chapter III concerns itself with literature related to the study, particularly as it pertains to the strategies for effecting change and the role of school district organization and of consultants in bringing about change.

The procedures and instruments for collecting the data are described in Chapter IV. Chapter IV also categorizes the data for presentation. The interpretation of the data is presented in Chapter V. Chapter VI deals with the summary, conclusion and implications of this study.

Contained in the Appendix is supplementary information, and samples of instruments used for the field study.

CHAPTER II

BACKGROUND FOR THE STUDY

Most important to the understanding of this study is an awareness of the intent of the National Defense Education Act and the procedures for securing the funds made available through the Title III programs. This chapter notes the history of federal aid to education thus providing the context for the NDEA. This is followed by a description of NDEA and the guidelines for Title III-B projects. It discusses the State Plan and its relationship to NDEA and to district projects.

I. FEDERAL AID TO EDUCATION

The basic emphasis given to education in the United States stems from the belief in the individual. The State exists for the individual, rather than the individual for the State. Developments of the individual intellect is therefore of concern, for if government is to be for the people, and by the people, then the people must have insight to attain such government. The government must provide the facilities for attaining that insight.¹ Accordingly, federal aid to education is aimed at equalizing educational opportunity by improving the effectiveness of the total educational structure of the several states.

The American tradition, however, is for local control rather than federal control of the public schools. The notion of local control

¹Hollis F. Allen, The Federal Government and Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1950), p. 1.

grew naturally from the isolation of pioneer communities. The tradition still exists, supported by law and by the basic belief that the local community and the state are in the best position to care for the educational needs of the individual who resides in that community. The federal government has supported this belief from the beginning. Most of the states were first organized as territories in all of which Congress provided for public school systems. Thus most of our state school systems were initiated by the federal government. Starting in 1785 with the endowment of federal land for public education in the Northwest Territory, the land grant program has since then aided all levels of education in the States by federal grants of probably over 165,000,000 acres.²

Allen, in the study of education for the Hoover Commission, pointed out that the federal government has had an interest in education to promote the kinds of changes needed in our society to attain the goals of democracy when he said:

. . . In a sense, federal participation in education throughout our history has been a healthy urge to make education meet essential needs in our society which have been resisted by the rank and file of those who control education and educational institutions. . . . In effect, federal promotion and support of education has been aimed largely at social lag in institutionalized education.

At the beginning of our national life publicly supported education was either meager or practically non-existent in most states. Education was largely available to select groups and through private schools, either church or proprietary. For effective participation in the democratic life of our new republic it was deemed essential that education be extended to the general populace--a concept that was relatively new in the world of that day. The insistence by the

²Ibid., p. 3.

federal government on provisions for general education in the territories and the subsequent generous endowment of education through land grants to the new states were definite acts to promote a new and needed program to which the society of the day had been resistant. In effect, these provisions were a protest by the federal government against the all too prevalent notion and practice that basic education was to be available only to the select few.³

Congress has had a long commitment to education. The concern has led to establishment of educational programs not only for public schools but also for specialized departmental needs. Many agencies of the federal government are involved in varying educational programs. For example, the Department of the Treasury trains persons for performance of duties in the Coast Guard, the Department of the Army operates the Military Academy at West Point as well as the Army service schools, the Department of the Interior provides for elementary and secondary schooling for Indian, Eskimo, and Aleut children living on reservations, the Veterans Administration engages in vocational rehabilitation training for disabled veterans, the National Science Foundation supports graduate students and teacher training as well as other programs and projects for the improvement in science education. Until recently the United States Congress tended to assign operational responsibilities for education to specific agencies. In 1950, however, with the enactment of Public Laws 874 and 815, which provided aid to federally affected local public school systems, the Congress assigned responsibilities to the Office of Education which had

³Ibid., p. 214.

formerly been assigned to different agencies of the federal government.⁴ The Office of Education since then has tended to increase in function and in number of staff members. With the enactments of the NDEA and the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, for example, the United States Office of Education was further expanded.

An abbreviated chronology of federal legislation will illustrate the continued interest of Congress in education from our country's beginning to the present time.

- 1777 Initiation of direct federal administration of educational programs, with instruction of military personnel, including schooling in mathematics.
- 1785 Commencement of aid to territories and later to states for education by endowment of schools with public lands.
- 1787 Commencement of endowment of public institutions of higher education with public lands--sometimes called the Northwest Ordinance, the first significant federal aid to education measure.
- 1804 Start of federal provisions for education in the District of Columbia.
- 1862 The first Morrill Act--initiation of the federal policy of aid to states for agricultural and industrial education, through land grants for colleges--called the Land-Grant College Act.
- 1867 Creation by Congress of a Federal Department of Education--now the Office of Education of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare, serving education at all levels.
- 1890 The Second Morrill Act--introduction of a policy of federal money grants for college instruction in specified subjects.

⁴Erick L. Lindman, The Federal Government and Public Schools (Washington, D. C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1965), p. 12.

- 1911 Beginning of federal aid to states for nautical schools, now degree-granting institutions--introduction to the principle of federal-state matching of funds for education.
- 1917 The Smith-Hughes Act--beginning of federal policy of promoting vocational education below college grade.
- 1920 The Smith-Bankhead Act--initiation of the policy of federal-state cooperation in vocational rehabilitation, including education, for persons disabled in industry.
- 1933 Establishment of the Federal Emergency Relief Administration, which supported various educational programs.
- 1935 Establishment of the National Youth Administration, which gave part time employment aid to college students.
- 1940 Passage of the Lanham Act authorizing wartime school construction and services in federally affected areas. (Forerunner of Public Laws 815 and 874 of 1950.)
- 1946 The George-Bardon Act--strengthening federal-state cooperation in vocational education.
- 1948 Smith-Mundt Act--establishing a broad program of international educational exchanges.
- 1950 Enactment of Public Laws 815 and 874 providing federal support for schools in certain federally affected localities. (Amended and extended several times.)
- 1950 Creation of the National Science Foundation--for development and encouragement of a national policy for promotion of basic research and education in the sciences.
- 1954 Cooperative Research Activity set up in U. S. Office of Education--for conduct of research, survey and demonstration in the field of education.
- 1958 The National Defense Education Act--establishing new federal policies in education at all levels. (Since amended and extended.)
- 1962 Passage of the Manpower Development and Training Act--new skills for those needing them.
- 1963 Vocational Education Act--a consolidation of previous legislation in the field and support for broad new developments.

- 1963 Mental Retardation Facilities and Community Mental Health Centers Construction Act, Education Provisions (Title III)--massive teacher training and research and development program for handicapped children.
- 1964 Civil Rights Act--provides for equal opportunity in education regardless of race, color, religion or national origin.
- 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act--\$1.3 billion to strengthen the schools of the nation.⁵

Public education in the United States has generally been reserved for the states. In reality, however, education is a partnership of local district, state and federal governments. The participation of the federal government has been largely noncoercive and supplemental. The 1960's have seen an increased effort on the part of the federal government to supplement and support public education. President John F. Kennedy in a special message to Congress on February 20, 1961 stressed the responsibility of the Federal Government to educate for the achievement of national goals without undermining local control when he said:

The human mind is our fundamental resource. A balanced Federal program must go well beyond incentives for investment in plant and equipment. It must include equally determined measures to invest in human beings--both in their basic education and training and in their more advanced preparation for professional work. Without such measures, the Federal Government will not be carrying out its responsibilities for expanding the base of our economic and military strength.

Our progress as a nation can be no swifter than our progress in education. Our requirements for world leadership, our hopes for economic growth, and the demands of

⁵Adapted from Carl McDaniels, Federal Legislation on American Education (Chicago: Science Research Associates, Inc., 1965), pp. 3-7.

citizenship itself in an era such as this all require the maximum development of every young American's capacity, . . . Education must remain a matter of state and local control, and higher education a matter of individual choice. But education is increasingly expensive. Too many state and local governments lack the resources to assure an adequate education for every child. . . . Our twin goals must be: a new standard of excellence to all who are willing and able to pursue it.⁶

Except for the enforcement of federal policies pertaining to issues like civil rights, federal action has been limited to advice and financial contributions which may be either accepted or rejected by state and local districts.

The effectiveness of the public school system depends upon the assignment of responsibilities and the utilization of the special strengths of each level of federal, state, and local government. Each level must perform its duties without interfering with the essential contributions of the other two.⁷

The local school district has the basic responsibility for operating the elementary and secondary schools. The state is required by most state constitutions to establish and maintain a system of free public education. The State of California is one such state. This duty has been exercised by creating local school districts which has not removed authority from the state legislature. The states are large enough to provide needed specialized services for local school

⁶John F. Kennedy, "Special Message to Congress," February 20, 1961, in Federal Aid to Education, Ronald Steel, editor (New York: The H. W. Wilson Company, 1961), pp. 48-49.

⁷Lindman, op. cit., p. 58.

districts, have broad taxing powers, and enjoy a high degree of independence from the federal government.

The cooperative nature of the working relationship among federal, state, and local governments in the operation of the public school system is demonstrated in the administration of NDEA Title III-B. The State Plan which was the foundation of the Title III program was basically a contract between the state and federal governments. The cooperation of state and federal governments was not a new idea as similar agreements have been used in the implementation of legislation such as the Smith-Hughes Act, the Smith-Bankhead Act, and the George-Bardon Act.

This section has shown that the federal government has a long history of aid to education. In the last decade, however, the financial aid has been increased on a large scale thereby offering the local school district wide opportunities to initiate change.

II. THE NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT

The National Defense Education Act, Public Law 85-864, was passed by the United States Congress and signed by President Dwight D. Eisenhower in September 1958. The legislation came as a response to the challenge given to the United States' scientific and military achievements by the Soviet's successful launching of Sputnik. The statement in the policy of the Act was:

. . . the security of the Nation requires the fullest development of the mental resources and technical skills of its young men and women. The present emergency demands that additional and more adequate educational opportunities be made available. The defense of this nation depends upon

the mastery of modern techniques developed from complex scientific principles. It depends as well upon discovery and development of new principles, new techniques, and new knowledge.⁸

The intent of NDEA was to insure the trained manpower necessary to meet the defense needs of the United States. To do this, financial assistance in various forms was provided for individuals and for states and their subdivisions. The original act had ten titles. Critical subject areas were designated as mathematics, science, and foreign languages. Four subsequent legislative enactments amended and expanded the Act to eleven titles in 1967-1968. In 1961, Public Law 87-344 expanded the coverage and extended authorization for two years. Two years later guidance and counseling assistance was extended to grades seven and eight in Titles V and VI and authorization was also extended to 1965 by Public Law 88-210. Public Law 88-665, passed in 1964, added English, reading, civics, geography and history as critical subjects in Title III and increased the offering of training institutes by adding Title XI. In addition, authorization was extended through 1968. The Higher Education Act of 1965 added economics to Title III. In November 1966, industrial arts was added to Title III as a critical subject.

NDEA provided for many different programs. A summary of the programs effective through the 1968 fiscal year follows:

⁸Section 101, Title I, National Defense Education Act, 1958.

<u>Title</u>	<u>Provisions</u>
I	Defines purpose and terms of NDEA
II	Provides loans to college students
III-A	Provides matching funds to strengthen instruction in civics, economics, English, geography, history, mathematics, modern foreign languages, reading, science by means of equipment and materials or minor remodeling
III-B	Provides for consultant services in the same critical subjects
IV	Provides fellowships for graduate study leading to college teaching
V	Provides funds to improve guidance, counseling, and testing services and for identification and encouragement of able students
VI	Provides aid in establishing language centers and fellowships for graduate study in languages
VII	Provides for research and experimentation in more effective use of TV, radio, films, and related media for educational purposes
VIII	Provides opportunities for skilled technical training through area vocational education programs
IX	Provides for establishment of a science information service and council
X	Provides help in improving accuracy and speed in gathering and interpreting state educational statistics
XI	Provides for institutes in English, English as a foreign language, reading, and for school library personnel, educational media specialists, and teachers of disadvantaged youth. ⁹

⁹ California State Department of Education, National Defense Education Act, Title III Manual of Information and Instructions (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1966), pp. 1-7.

III. NDEA, TITLE III

Although Titles V and VIII provided direct financial aid to specialized areas of need to districts, Title III made grants available for the improvement of the instructional programs of all public elementary and secondary schools. Title III projects were expected to achieve one or more of the following objectives:

To develop to their fullest the mental resources and technical skills of children, youth, and young adults through additional and more adequate educational opportunities

To increase the opportunities for learning in the critical subjects and to prepare for further study those with special abilities in these subjects

To improve teaching in the critical subjects through the use of laboratory and other special equipment, including audio-visual materials and equipment and printed materials other than textbooks

To encourage experimentation and research to find better ways of teaching the critical subjects, including the use of laboratory and other special equipment and improved communications media.¹⁰⁾

Projects eligible to receive Title III funds were to "be designed to improve instruction in the designated critical subjects through new developments above and beyond the normal effort of the schools."¹¹ Projects could also be designed to introduce or establish a program new to a particular school.

As pointed out in the summary of NDEA programs, Title III authorized two programs. Section A (III-A) provided matching funds

¹⁰ Ibid., p. 4.

¹¹ Ibid., p. 5.

for the purchase of equipment and materials or for minor remodeling for laboratories or other equipment space. Section B (III-B) granted funds for State supervisory and related services, usually referred to as consultant services, to improve instruction in the critical subjects in the schools. This study is based on that part of Title III-B, consultant services in the social sciences--i. e., civics, economics, geography, and history.

Any public school district, county superintendent's office, or public agency controlling an elementary or secondary school was eligible to apply for Title III-B funds. Requests for consultant services were in two categories, (1) inservice education and (2) program planning and evaluation. (See Appendix A for Application Form.) Applications from these educational agencies were approved or disapproved by the State according to the principles for determining priorities, standards, and procedures which were in the State Plan.

Project applications were submitted to the State Bureau of NDEA where each project was evaluated for funding. Evaluations were made by a representative group of subject matter specialists from local districts, county offices, universities and colleges, and the State Department of Education. Formal approval of projects came through the State Superintendent of Public Instruction. Projects for Title III-B were evaluated according to a list of nine criteria. (See Appendix B.)

IV. THE STATE PLAN

NDEA Title III programs were organized and administered by the State Department of Education. The State Plan was the foundation of the Title III program within each state. It was a contract or agreement between the state and the United States Office of Education for the operation of the program within the state. Each state designed its own plan for strengthening instruction within that state in the critical subject areas named in Title III.¹²

In California, the State Plan was delineated in A Revised State Plan for Strengthening Instruction in Science, Mathematics, Modern Foreign Languages, and Other Critical Subjects Under Sections 301-304 of Title III, P.L. 85-864, as Amended, and for Strengthening Instruction in the Humanities and the Arts Under Section 12 of P.L. 89-209, a document approved by the California State Board of Education on February 11, 1966.

Under the State Plan in California, the supervisory and related services to improve the teaching of the critical subjects (Title III-B) was interpreted as providing at no cost to districts, a limited number of days of consultant time to improve the quality of instruction. Consultant services were in addition to local resources. The consultants, so provided, were considered a part of the State supervisory and consultant services. As such, the consultants, although requested by the local agencies, were reimbursed by the State.

¹²U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, NDEA Title III Guidelines, January 1965, revised April 1967 (Washington, D. C.: Office of Education, 1967), p. 1.

V. SUMMARY

To provide a setting for the NDEA funding for consultant services in the social sciences to the local districts, the background of Federal Aid to Education has been reviewed. The autonomy of the district to structure a change appropriate to the local situation within the framework of federal financing has been shown. The chapter has also delineated the purposes of NDEA and the procedures for submitting and for funding projects for NDEA title III-B consultant services in the social sciences.

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE FROM SELECTED FIELDS RELATED TO THE STUDY

Much has been written in regard to the problems of change, the organization of public schools and the use of consultants for in-service programs in the schools. Only a brief summary of work done which relates closely to the problems at hand will be given here.

I. LITERATURE RELATED TO CHANGE

The research studies concerned with social change have been done in six major fields: anthropology, early sociology, rural sociology, education, industrial and medical sociology. There are important differences among the research traditions of the fields represented, but there are commonalities as well which contribute to a study of change in each of them.

Sources of the Literature

Rural sociology has produced the greatest number of publications and studies on the diffusion of new ideas. Most of these studies are concerned with the transmission of farm innovations from agricultural scientist to the farmer. The study of Ryan and Gross in 1943 on the analysis of the spread of hybrid seed corn in Iowa really marked the start of such studies. Since then, about 300 different

publications have appeared to report research findings in this area.¹

The second largest number of studies came from the field of education. Ross in his book Administration for Adaptability, published in 1958, listed over 150 studies. The studies which Ross reviewed illustrate strong intercommunication within the field of education, but show no close attention to other diffusion studies. The majority of educational diffusion studies have been done under the sponsorship of Paul Mort and Columbia University Teachers College. The unit of analysis in most of these investigations was the school system and the data were gathered by mailed questionnaire.²

Mort's early studies, oriented to school finance and state control led to the perception of the principle of adaptability. Writing American Schools in Transition in 1941 with Cornell, Mort defined adaptability as

the capacity of a state school system to respond to changing demands on public education by casting off obsolete functions and methods and taking on new ones. In this respect the state school system is considered to be the sum total of all local school districts and central public educational agencies which provide public education within the geographical limits of the larger political unit.³

¹Gerhard Eichholz and Everett M. Rogers, "Resistance to the Adoption of Audio-Visual Aids by Elementary School Teachers: Contrasts and Similarities to Agricultural Innovation," Innovation in Education, Matthew B. Miles, editor (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), p. 300.

²Ibid., pp. 301-302.

³Paul R. Mort and Francis G. Cornell, American Schools in Transition (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941), p. xxi.

Later, writing with Donald Ross in 1957, Mort defined adaptability as "the capacity of the enterprise to adapt itself to new needs, to newly recognized needs, or to the invention of better ways to meet old needs."⁴

In the educational studies done by Mort, adaptability referred to the ability to change and the term diffusion was used as a descriptive state of the adaptation process.⁵

The rural sociologist, however, has a more explicit definition for diffusion. Two definitions from this field recur in the literature of the studies relating to change. One is Rogers' classification of the five stages of diffusion: awareness, interest, evaluation, trial, and adoption.⁶ The other is that of Katz, et al., who say:

The process of diffusion is defined as the (1) acceptance, (2) over time, (3) of some specific item--an idea or practice, (4) by individuals, groups or other adopting units, linked to (5) specific channels of communication, (6) to a social structure, and (7) to a given system of values, or culture. The elements of this definition are treated as an "accounting scheme" in terms of which diffusion studies in the fields of sociology, anthropology, rural sociology, mass communication, etc., are reviewed and problems of research design are explicated.⁷

⁴Paul R. Mort and Donald H. Ross, Principles of School Administration (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1957), p. 177.

⁵Mort and Cornell, op. cit., p. 3.

⁶Eichholz and Rogers, op. cit., p. 303.

⁷Elihu Katz, Martin L. Levin and Herbert Hamilton, "Tradition of Research on the Diffusion of Innovation," American Sociological Review, 28:237-252, April, 1963.

Change is also regarded as innovation or invention. Homer Barnett's view of innovation stresses the creative aspect, implying change through the recombination of parts into that which differs from existing forms.⁸ Miles, however, says that generally speaking, "it seems more useful to define an innovation as a deliberate, novel, specific change, which is thought to be more efficacious in accomplishing the goals of a system."⁹ Gallaher believes that it is more useful to distinguish between the term innovator, the individual responsible for the conception of an innovation, and the term advocate, individuals or agencies who sponsor an innovation for the express purpose of gaining its acceptance by others.¹⁰

Atwood suggests that interaction theory be applied to the study of educational innovation. This would mean that

Educational innovations are to be treated as changes in patterns of social action, and as the emergence of new patterns of events. Educational innovations become processes described operationally as changes from prior states in the number and identity of the people involved, in the direction of action between them, in the frequencies of the specifiable kinds of events involving them, and in the duration and regularity of these events. They also

⁸Homer Barnett, Innovation: The Basis of Culture Change (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1953).

⁹Matthew B. Miles, Innovation in Education (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964) p. 14.

¹⁰Art Gallaher, Jr., "Directed Change in Formal Organizations: The School System," Change Processes in the Public Schools (Eugene, Oregon: The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon Press, 1965) p. 41.

become statements of changes in the spatial distribution of people and actions, and of changes in the preceding and concurrent sequences of linked events.¹¹

Agreement and commonality exist in the numerous studies, regardless of whether they are termed adaptability, diffusion or innovation. According to Eichholz and Rogers five crucial elements in the diffusion of any type of innovation are the same in studies in both rural sociology and education. They are:

1. The innovation, defined as an idea perceived as new by the individual.
2. The communication of the innovation from one individual to another. Diffusion is defined as the process by which an idea spreads.
3. The innovation diffuses through a social system, defined as a population of individuals who are functionally differentiated and engaged in collective problem-solving. . . .
4. Diffusion occurs over time. Not all individuals adopt an innovation at the same time. Innovativeness is defined as the degree to which an individual adopts new ideas relatively earlier than other members of his social system. . . .
5. The time differential in adoption or rejection can be explained in part by the forms and stages of adoption-rejection. These forms (ignorance, suspended judgment, situational, personal and experimental) are directly related to the stages found in both the adoption and the rejection process. . . . It may also be that certain forms of adoption-rejection lead to a greater or lesser time differential. . . .¹²

Some generalizations found in educational studies seem to apply to rural sociological studies and are also supported by evidence from industrial and medical sociology studies. The findings by educational researchers that schools which are more innovative have teachers who

¹¹ M. S. Atwood, "Small Scale Administrative Change: Resistance to the Introduction of a High School Guidance Program," Innovation in Education, Matthew B. Miles, editor (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964) p. 52.

¹² Eichholz and Rogers, op. cit., pp. 312-313.

attend out-of-town educational meetings and who read widely to find new ideas coupled with the findings of rural sociologists that farmer-innovators were more likely to travel to metropolitan cities than were laggards suggest that "innovativeness varies directly with cosmopolitaness (defined as the degree to which an individual's orientation is external to a particular social system)."¹³

From the evidence that innovative farmers operated larger farms, earned higher gross farm incomes, and had higher net worth than less innovative farmers, that the more innovative school systems are located in communities with higher average incomes and greater school tax support, that medical doctors with rich patients and industrial firms with larger operations are characterized by innovativeness, another generalization is suggested: "innovativeness varies directly with financial resources."¹⁴

Lag in Educational Change

One of the long-recognized problems of education has been the lag between insight into a need, invention of a solution, and the diffusion of the practice into the schools. The studies on adaptability have concerned themselves with finding how educational changes occur and the rate of such changes. Seven stages appear in the adaptation period:

- (1) the emergence of a need; (2) the recognition of the need;
- (3) the definition of the need; (4) the invention of ways and means of meeting the need; (5) the introduction of the

¹³Ibid., pp. 313-314.

¹⁴Ibid., p. 314.

invention into one or more communities; (6) the improvement of the invention in actual practice; and (7) the diffusion of the invention throughout the schools of the state.¹⁵

Educational change has been a slow process. The identification of need is frequently a long, drawn-out process. Tryout of inventions takes about a half a century. Another fifty or sixty years is typically required for diffusion of an adequate invention. When the diffusion is nearly complete, it slows down and it takes many more years for laggard schools to adapt. A cluster or composite of inventions indicating a major change seems about as rapid in diffusion as a simple change. The evidence also indicates that "while the shape of the diffusion curve is constant, deliberate effort can reduce the time dimension."¹⁶

From the research which he surveyed, Ross summarized seven steps which could reduce the lag and speed the process of change.

1. Systematic attempts to identify educational needs.
2. Wider understanding of the latest technical findings in regard to factors that effect the success of educational undertakings, understanding of the things scientifically established as conditions of behavior, of learning, of growth.
3. Construction of concepts descriptive of evolutionary goals in school change--descriptions of "emerging designs."
4. Widespread attempts to apply the technical and empirically established knowledge of the process of education to the discovered need; in other words, stimulation of deliberate efforts at intelligent invention.

¹⁵ Mort and Ross, op. cit., p. 202.

¹⁶ Ibid., p. 210.

5. Publication of likely inventions or discrete practices that seem to work, so that they may be quickly and widely tested in use and partial solutions may be utilized in the construction of major changes.
6. Utilization of every method of communication to spread the use of power by larger units of administration so as to "mop up the laggards."¹⁷

Barriers to Change in Education

The review of studies from other disciplines revealed that change occurs more slowly in education than in medicine, in industry, and in agriculture. The literature also disclosed some barriers to change in education that are not present in the other fields.

Richard O. Carlson of the Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration at the University of Oregon suggested three barriers to change in education.¹⁸ One of the most important is that education has no change agent. In agriculture, for example, the county extension agent acts as a change agent. He advocates the introduction of new practices to the farmer. In education there is no comparable role. The state and county superintendents and their departments of education have as their major function the regulation of education rather than the introduction of innovation. It is also difficult to make a case for the district superintendent having as his major function the advocacy of change. Even in instances where the

¹⁷ Donald H. Ross, editor, Administration for Adaptability (New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1958) p. 58.

¹⁸ Richard O. Carlson, "Barriers to Change in Public Schools," Change Processes in the Public Schools (Eugene, Oregon: The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon Press, 1965), pp. 3-8.

superintendent has through necessity assumed the role of change agent, he must function within the system rather than from outside the operating system as the agricultural extension agent.

The schools are also slow to change according to Carlson, because of the weakness of the knowledge base about new educational practices. Rarely has a school innovation been backed by extensive research, experiment, and development. The school superintendent, therefore, when he acts as a change agent must do the work that is done in agriculture by both the county extension agent and the agricultural experimental station.

The third factor that Carlson identified as a barrier to educational change had to do with the organizational characteristics of the schools and the relationship of the school as an organization and its clients. The public school as an organization cannot select its clients and the clients must accept the services of the school. Such organizations are labeled "domesticated organizations" indicating that they are protected and cared for in a fashion similar to domesticated animals. They are protected by the society they serve. They are funded; a steady flow of clients is assured; existence is guaranteed. Society sees domesticated organizations as essential to the social system and protects them through laws. The consequence of such protection is to produce a stability and thus reduce the need for and interest in change.

Barton and Wilder drew similar conclusions after looking at the application of medical research to medical practice. They have concluded that the application of scientific research to education

presents problems similar to those in medicine but with several special factors aggravating conditions in education. They have stated:

First of all, the sciences involved, those of human behavior, have methods that are less well developed than those of the natural sciences, and labor under certain inherent restrictions. Second, the problems of values and goals present in any application of science are more complex and controversial in education than in medicine. The restoration of health is easier to define than the creation of an educated person. The period during which scientific research was introduced into education was also a time of crusades to change--broadening in some ways, narrowing in others--the goals of education (Cremin, 1961). Scientific theories of the ways children develop and learn became deeply entangled with ideological conflicts. And third, the public has not yet been willing to pay for the recruitment and training of professionals comparable to those in medicine to staff their schools.¹⁹

In comparing educational settings with those in agriculture, medicine, industry and public health, Lippitt suggests several special features of the change problem in education which are more complex than those in the other fields. Hence they may also be factors which impede change in education. A summarization of the factors suggested by Lippitt is as follows:²⁰

1. In order for a change to be successful some changes in the attitudes and skills and values of the practitioner are implied and required.

¹⁹ Allen H. Barton and David E. Wilder, "Research and Practice in the Teaching of Reading: A Progress Report, " *Innovation in Education*, Matthew B. Miles, editor (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964) pp. 362-363.

²⁰ Ronald Lippitt, "Roles and Processes in Curriculum Development and Change, " *Strategy for Curriculum Change*, Robert R. Leeper, editor (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1965) pp. 11-28.

2. In education a great proportion of the significant new inventions remains quite invisible, undocumented, and inaccessible for consideration by potential adopters. Interviews revealed that educators are inhibited to a large degree when it comes to communicating about their own inventiveness as well as hesitant to adopt somebody else's practice because that might be considered imitation and as such, that would be bad.

3. Those in education feel that they are supposed to be their own inventors and to use, adopt, or adapt ideas from some other source would cause colleagues to look down upon them.

4. Education lacks a professional network of communicators and agents of change.

5. Colleague relations inhibit the trial and adoption of innovations.

6. In education in comparison with other fields there appears to be a significant lack of working relationship and design for collaboration between the behavioral scientists and the educational engineers.

7. One of the most critical factors is the lack of clear feedback to reinforce the change efforts. The educator does not know whether his tryouts are being successful in the ways that he had hoped.

8. The feeling on the part of educators that experimentation will be regarded adversely by the supporting community of parents, agencies, organizations and boards of education.

Pellegrin also saw major impediments to the achievement of effective changes in education. He listed them as:

- (1) There is serious confusion in the field of education concerning the sources of reliable and valid knowledge. . .

(2) In view of the tremendous complexity, size and scope of the educational enterprise in the United States, the division of labor that exists is rudimentary and wholly inadequate for the specialized roles that must be performed if we are to make the right kinds of innovations effectively.

(3). . . Most training programs do not prepare students for a wide variety of specialized roles, but attempt to give them a conception of the field of education which minimized specializations. A major consequence is that relatively few specialists are prepared, especially in research, development, and dissemination; thus the teacher or administrator may feel that he is as much of a specialist or expert on a given subject as anyone else.

(4) There is a lack of opportunity, resources, and settings for introducing innovations on an experimental basis and for evaluating them objectively through research.

(5) Persons who play different roles in education--teachers, administrators, and researchers, for example--do not have their work linked together by any institutionalized means or procedures. Thus each can . . . conduct his work in isolation from and ignorance of the knowledge and specialized competencies of the other.

(6) There are grave weaknesses of channels and procedures for dissemination. Unlike many academic disciplines, education cannot rely almost exclusively on the printed media for disseminating information. . . . there is a great deal of suspicion of sources of knowledge which are not known personally to the practitioner.

(7) . . . the professional culture in education contains certain ideological beliefs that serve to block effective innovation. . .

(8) How educational practices can be related accurately to the goals and ambitions of the public is a question that is shrouded in doubt and uncertainty. A paradox, in fact, exists: while most change in education is externally induced, educators have but limited and highly unreliable means of identifying the scope and intensity of public demands for educational programs. . . .²¹

²¹ Rolland J. Pellegrin, "An Analysis of Sources and Processes of Innovation in Education" (a paper presented at the Conference on Educational Change sponsored by the Demonstration Project for Gifted Youth and the U. S. Office of Education, Allerton Park, Illinois, February 28, 1966), pp. 18-20.

Miles, in summarizing the generalizations derived from the many contributors to Innovation in Education, said that the diffusion rates for education may be slower than in agriculture, medicine or industry because of:

the absence of valid scientific research findings; the lack of change agents to promote new educational ideas; and the lack of economic incentive to adopt innovations (since educational products do not have immediate economic payoff, and educational practitioners are paid on the basis of longevity rather than on net output, . . .)

It is also possible that certain ideological beliefs in the educational profession serve to block effective innovation by effectively insulating educational practitioners from reality. . . .

. . . existing educational product specifications, as manifested in state or national examinations, serve to inhibit change in educational procedures. . . .

. . . it certainly seems possible that vulnerability to outside influence, the use of persons rather than physical technology as primary instruments of change, and lay control may all serve to lower innovation rates in educational organizations, seen comparatively with other organizations.²²

The Sources of Educational Change

Innovations come from various sources. Much of the literature was concerned with identifying the events, persons, groups, grants, and other sources which caused the generation of ideas and the diffusion of practices.

Pellegrin addressed himself to what he termed the current sources of educational innovation. He focused on the positions and roles of persons in organizational settings in a simplified version of role theory. He pointed out that "role theory assumes that for every position or status in an organization . . . there are accompanying

²² Miles, op. cit., pp. 634-635.

role behaviors and normative expectations."²³ It is possible, however, that normative expectations associated with a particular position may encourage stable behavior rather than innovative activity. He proceeded then to examine positions of individuals, groups and organizations to identify their sources of innovations.

The first source of innovation Pellegrin identified was the classroom teacher who seldom plays a major role as the teacher's job conception usually does not range far beyond his own school room. Also there is a lack of institutionalized procedure for disseminating the innovative patterns and procedures which a teacher may develop. Teachers seldom suggest new working patterns for themselves. Role expectations within the school organization emphasizes standardization and routing rather than novelty.

The administrator (superintendent or principal) is the key element in planning and effecting improvement in local school districts. The superintendent is the crucial figure in the district. The superintendent holds a position of power, real or perceived. He has more authority than any one else at the local level. The principal holds a similar role in his building. The principal, at the building level, creates a climate that nurtures or discourages change.

A third source suggested by Pellegrin was the board of education which is important in the process of change largely through influences and control of the allocation of resources, but seldom exerts much leadership in specific program changes. Board members

²³Pellegrin, op. cit., p. 4.

are usually more effective brakes than stimulators.

He further asserted that the lay public is assumed by most of those in education to be interested in the schools, but only a small proportion of the population is actively engaged in educational affairs. Laymen who are involved represent the highly educated, high income, managerial and professional segments of the community.

The state departments of education have played a modest role in effecting improvement in most local districts. They have enforced minimum standards, distributed funds, administered regulations, and performed service functions.

Education faculties in colleges and universities give primary importance to training new teachers and administrators. They are thus translators, disseminators, trainers and indoctrinators. They contribute to in-service training in the field. Empirical evidence makes one question their significance in encouraging innovation.

Professional associations, even though on a statewide and nationwide basis, have had negligible effect upon local practice. Association conventions and activities serve to acquaint members with new practices and their literature often reports on promising practices. Some skepticism exists, however, that the association journals carry the full truth about programs in other schools.

The United States Office of Education and other federal agencies had no discernible effect on local school districts until recently. The USOE has assumed a vital role in innovation. Other federal agencies such as the National Science Foundation have greatly influenced the content of innovations.

The textbook publishers are also sources of change. The schools depend heavily upon them for instructional materials and the publishers develop materials to meet the demands. Occasionally publishers resist changing their materials because they have a substantial stake in another program.

Scientists, technical specialists and other experts have had an extremely significant role in the innovation process. Specialists in other academic fields are beginning to play similar roles in curriculum development. Engineers and psychologists and others are applying computer technology to education. Such roles are either recently developed or are just emerging and in all probability will have an important impact on future innovation.

Pellegrin concluded the foregoing discussion by saying:

. . . I have tried to take stock of what is, not what should be. My second major point--and this is by far the most important one--is that if one looks over the statements made in this section, he cannot fail to be impressed by the fact that the greatest stimuli to changes in education originate in sources external to the field. What I have shown is that the sources of innovation lie largely outside the local community, and in most instances outside the educational profession. Innovations are channeled into the local community from the outside, and their introduction on the local community level depends primarily upon the superintendent.²⁴

In a study of curricular change in the elementary and secondary schools, Mackenzie identified a group of sources similar to Pellegrin's. However; Mackenzie referred to his categories as participants in change--the individuals or groups exercising influence relative to curricular change. He classifies the participants in change as internal

²⁴ Ibid., pp. 5-12.

or external. Internal participants were those who had a direct connection with the legal or social system under consideration, whereas external participants were those outside the immediate system. He categorized the following as internal participants: students, teachers, principals, supervisors, superintendents, boards of education, citizens in local communities, state legislatures, state boards or departments of education; and state and federal courts. Mackenzie differs from Pellegrin only in the inclusion of students as a source of change. Because students influence teachers' practices either by their direct actions (interest, apathy, satisfaction) and by their indirect action (making their opinions of teachers, time allocation, subject matter, and methods known to parents and principals), they were included as determiners of change and termed internal participants.

The external participants in curricular change as identified by Mackenzie were grouped into six categories: non-educationists (individuals and groups), foundations, academicians (individuals and groups), business and industry (including materials and facilities producers, and agents of the mass media), educationists, (individuals, groups, and organizations such as teacher-education institutions, accrediting agencies, and professional associations), and the national government (primarily the legislative and executive branches).²⁵

²⁵Gordon N. Mackenzie, "Curricular Change: Participants, Power, and Processes," *Innovation in Education*, Matthew B. Miles, editor (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 409-417.

Institutional Change

To look at change as it occurs in the school necessitates looking at the school in its sociological setting. The school because it has a total configuration of prescribed behavior patterns is a social institution.²⁶ An educational change as conducted by state and local authorities should be recognized as fundamentally a form of institutional change.²⁷ Institutional or organizational change is affected by a number of conditions which must be taken into consideration when planning for change or for implementing change. The school must be recognized as a subpart of the social system. It is subject to the influences of changes already going on outside the organization. An interrelationship exists between the school and the outside society and the school finds itself reacting to changes in the society of which it is a part.

No social institution changes easily. The strain of changing habits ranges from annoying to devastating. Jealousies, multi-loyalties, preoccupation with organizational charts and a lack of a top-level attitude favorable to change make planning for change difficult and bringing it about even more so. Multiple forces are always operating to facilitate or to inhibit change in an organization. It is necessary to analyze the fields of influences which these forces are exerting upon the organization and the people in it as a first step in the strategy of planning for change.

²⁶Frances J. Brown, Educational Sociology, Second Edition (New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1954), p. 115.

²⁷Kenneth H. Hansen, "Planning for Changes in Education," Planning and Effecting Needed Changes in Education, Edgar L. Morphet and Charles O. Ryan, editors (New York: Citation Press, 1967), p. 23.

Change cannot be limited to any one segment of a living organization as the total structure is so interrelated that a change in one segment produces change in another. Kahn and Katz have put it this way:

. . . the psychological field is an intervening construct and as such is not directly susceptible to manipulation; the field changes when the social psychological environment changes, and such alterations usually involve broad segments of the organization in addition to the group in which change is proposed.²⁸

In the long run the personnel within an organization are the ones who will be changed following a change in the social psychological environment.

Some changes just happen without conscious planning. Such changes may or may not be useful or effective. In fact, they may actually be harmful to the organization. Change, therefore, has to be brought about consciously--often from outside sources. And here, according to Hansen, a paradox emerges: "the most desirable change and the most effective change is that which is self-generated within an organization, or by the people involved."²⁹

Schools are similar to other social organizations. Social organizations are not characterized by change. Their outstanding characteristic appears to be stability, rather than change. Since the tendency of organizations is to maintain a steady state, the major impetus for

²⁸Robert L. Kahn and Daniel Katz, "Leadership Practices in Relation to Productivity and Morale," Group Dynamics, Research and Theory, Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, editors (Evanston: Illinois: Rowe, Peterson and Company, 1953), p. 627.

²⁹Hansen, op. cit., p. 24.

change comes from outside the organization. The hierarchial nature of organizations impedes change. The hierarchial structure makes innovation or change-thrust from the bottom up virtually impossible. When change in an organization does occur, it tends to occur from the top down, not from the bottom up.³⁰

Not only is the school as an organization resistant to change, but often efforts to introduce some kind of a change are met with resistance. The study by Atwood described and analyzed the steps a principal of a large city high school took to improve the guidance services offered the students. When the idea for the program was introduced, the experienced teachers in the school expressed favorable attitudes for guidance. However, when the program was actually put into action, it upset the interaction patterns of the faculty and unfavorable attitudes toward the program developed as a result. In reviewing the events which preceded the innovation of the guidance program, he found that nine prior changes had been made in the school system which had affected the interaction patterns of the faculty. Atwood concluded that the complaints about the guidance program served in part as a channel for expressing the feelings of pressure resulting from the other changes in the system.³¹

Resistance or rejection of an innovation has been given little consideration in diffusion studies. Most studies are concerned with

³⁰ Daniel E. Griffiths, "Administrative Theory and Change in Organizations," *Innovations in Education*, Matthew B. Miles, editor (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 425-436.

³¹ Atwood, *op. cit.*, pp. 49-76.

adoption. However, it must be recognized that some changes are not only resisted, but are also rejected. Eichholz and Rogers postulated a theory of rejection which they tested with an investigation in the use of audio-visual aids. Using the five stages whereby adopters ultimately use an innovation the researchers attempted to formulate a rejection-adoption theory based primarily on rejection and incorporating "discontinuances" as a logical result of either the rejection or the adoption process. The five stages in diffusion of innovation as identified earlier in this chapter are: (1) awareness: the individual learns of the existence of the innovation; (2) interest: the individual seeks more information and considers the merits of the innovation; (3) evaluation: the individual makes a mental application of the innovation and weighs its merits for his particular situation; (4) trial: the individual applies the innovation on a small scale; (5) adoption: the individual accepts the innovation or continues use on the basis of a previous trial.

It was hypothesized that rejection would parallel the same five processes. To test the theory and validate the postulated classifications, forty-five teachers in a metropolitan school system were selected for interviews in 1960. The interviews were transcribed and the attitude statements were tabulated on a previously developed classification system. The form of rejections as revised from the results of the study included: (1) ignorance, no information; (2) suspended judgment--considered to be on the same level as awareness in the diffusion model; (3) situational--on the level of interest in the diffusion model for adoption, for rejection it is the stage of indifference; (4) personal--the evaluation stage for adoption, but the denial stage for rejection;

(5) experimental--trial stage for both adoption and rejection. There is some reason to believe that a person may be either a potential adopter or a potential rejecter, approaching an innovation with adopter or rejecter "sets."³²

Organizations, made up of individuals, too, are subject to the rejection-adoption syndrome. Some of the recent literature deals with introduction, acceptance and rejection of change within the organizational structure. One writer found that the creative organizations:

. . . encourage "idea men"; have open channels of communication; encourage contact with outside sources; employ heterogeneous types of personnel; assign non-specialists as well as experts to problems; use an objective, fact-founded approach; encourage the evaluation of ideas on their merits rather than according to the status of the persons originating them; make systematic efforts to select personnel and to reward them solely on the basis of merit; invest in basic research and are flexible with regard to long-range planning; experiment with new ideas rather than pre-judging things on "rational" grounds--i. e., everything "gets a chance"; are more decentralized and diversified than less innovative organizations; have "administrative slack," permitting time and resources to be used to absorb errors; have a "risk-taking ethos," tolerating and expecting that chances will be taken; are not run as a "tight ship," but permit employees to have fun, to have freedom in choosing and pursuing problems, and to discuss ideas; are organizationally autonomous, and do not try to pattern their interests and activities on other organizations that serve as models; have "separate units or occasions for generating vs. evaluating ideas"; and separate creative from productive functions.³³

Miles also rates the organization as important in the change process. He maintains that the health of the organization will be an

³²Eichholz and Rogers, op. cit., pp. 299-312.

³³Pellegrin, op. cit., p. 16, citing The Creative Organization, Gary A. Steiner, editor.

indicator of the success of any change effort. Change is conditioned by the system in which it takes place. Ten dimensions which will indicate organization health are: goal focus; communication adequacy; optimal power equalization; cohesiveness; morale; innovativeness; autonomy; adaptation; problem-solving adequacy. Educational systems, however, have some unique properties which hinder growth of the individual systems because they affect the foregoing dimensions of organizational health. They are: goal ambiguity; input; variability; role performance invisibility; low interdependence; vulnerability; lay-professional control problems; low technological investment.³⁴

Acceleration of Change in Education

The review of studies as previously cited from other disciplines indicated that change has occurred more slowly in education than in medicine, in industry, or in agriculture. In recent years, however, noticeable acceleration in the process of educational change has taken place. In 1965, Time Magazine quoted Ellsworth Tompkins, executive secretary of the National Association of Secondary School Principals as saying, "over the past seven or eight years we have experienced in the schools the most important developments since the establishment of public education."³⁵

³⁴Matthew B. Miles, "Planned Change and Organizational Health: Figure and Ground," Change Processes in the Public Schools (Eugene: Oregon: The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1965), pp. 11-33.

³⁵Time Magazine, "Students: On the Fringe of a Golden Era," 85:56, January 29, 1965, reprinted in The Changing Secondary School Curriculum, William M. Alexander, editor (San Francisco: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967), p. 82.

Bruner's statement that "any subject can be taught effectively in some intellectually honest form to any child at any stage of development"³⁶ marked the beginning of the era to which Tompkins referred and brought attention to the increased efforts for change as well as focus to the structure of content and the use of an inquiry approach to learning. Curriculum development projects in process at that time, such as the School Mathematics Study Group, the University of Illinois Mathematics project, the Physical Science Study Committee, and the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study, were developing classroom materials based on the hypothesis stated by Bruner. These projects brought teams composed of scholars in the disciplinary fields, teachers in the elementary and secondary schools and other specialists, as needed, together to design curricula for the above mentioned elementary and secondary subjects.

The rapidity with which the new curriculum changes as exemplified by the foregoing projects reached into the schools and reduced the lag noted by Mort and his associates may be illustrated with the following information. In 1965 nearly half the high school students studying physics were learning through discovery; one-third of the chemistry students and one-fourth of the biology students were taking completely revamped courses. The new mathematics reached about seventy percent of the students in grades seven through twelve. In 1958 the United States public schools conducted only forty-five language

³⁶Jerome S. Bruner, *The Process of Education* (New York: Vintage Books, A Division of Random House, 1960), p. 33.

laboratories and in 1965 the number soared to 7,000.³⁷ These changes took place in a matter of ten years or less as compared to the fifty year lag noted by Mort.

The acceleration in introducing new curricula into the schools may be seen as a result of several forces. To identify the forces and find the reasons for the increased tempo means looking at society as well as at education. The social environment is changing rapidly. The population is increasingly mobile, with the greatest movement toward and within the cities. Increasing urbanization, as it changes the social environment also necessitates changes in the institutions created by and serving the society. Thus the school, a social institution, resistant to change as shown earlier, has been receiving pressure from the society to change to meet the demands of the new environment. The school, developed to serve a rural economy, cannot meet the needs of an urban one. As Chandler said, "those concerned with schools in urban areas are challenged to provide education for a society that did not exist even a decade ago."³⁸ The new frontier for education is the megalopolis as this is where most of the people are.

With the movement of people into the megalopolis the social forces affecting the schools are numerous. These forces include: the demands of more people for more schooling for a longer period of time; rising costs for schools coupled with increased taxes; population shifts;

³⁷ Time Magazine, loc. cit.

³⁸ B. J. Chandler, "Forces Influencing Urban Schools," Education in Urban Society, B. J. Chandler, Lindley J. Stiles, and John I. Kitsuse, editors (New York: Dodd, Mead and Company, 1962), p. 4.

the inability of the political organization in the urban areas to meet the demands of increased population necessitating assistance from the next higher level of government; the barrage of mass media of communication; pockets of one-class neighborhoods; decrease in the number of unskilled jobs and increase in the demand for skilled labor; inadequacy of recreational facilities in the urban areas; the role of non-public schools in serving dense population areas. Such social forces shape the learning climate of the schools. They "influence the school curriculum, teaching, and personnel policies and staffing patterns, as well as the standards of achievement that can be maintained."³⁹

One of the most important forces acting upon the schools to force change comes from increased scientific activity. The heavy financing of the physical sciences has helped to determine science offerings in the public schools. In recent years a close working relationship between subject matter scholars and the professional educators has developed as a result of the emphasis upon science. Government policy has encouraged this emphasis upon science and mathematics. All of the scientific activity has had a direct influence upon the method of teaching. It has fostered an inquiry approach. It has also brought to the foreground technological devices in the form of teaching machines and programmed learning. Funding for research activities has also had great impact upon the amount of educational research and the interest of the subject matter scholars in working with education.⁴⁰

³⁹Ibid., pp. 4-25.

⁴⁰Ibid., pp. 25-35.

Ianni, looking at the forces affecting change in the schools from an educator's viewpoint, credited the acceleration to "a drive to 'catch up' with the Russians and the attention which the civil rights movement focused on the educational problems of the disadvantaged." He said that these two factors had "garnered far more governmental, public and even scholarly concern than years of educational research."⁴¹ He then summarized the results of these forces in terms of some of the changes in the educational system which have occurred in the last decade. Scholars and scientists have gone into classrooms with the experienced teachers to create, test, revise materials and methods that incorporate the best knowledge of today into the curriculum. Secondly, new teaching techniques have been developed which rely upon honest and rigorous teaching of basic concepts from the academic disciplines. Furthermore, a new understanding of the structure of subject matter coupled with a new approach to the estimate of the learning capacity of children has brought change into the curriculum. Children are learning to read at a younger age, subjects are being introduced earlier in the curriculum, for example, economics in the primary grades. Lastly, the realization that research and development in education are a continuous process of experimentation and innovation which must involve the school as well as the laboratory, teacher and researcher has helped to close the gap between theory and practice. Financial support for research-development-evaluation and

⁴¹Francis A. J. Ianni, "Research and Experimentation in Education," *Phi Delta Kappan*, 46:489, June, 1965, reprinted in *The Changing Secondary School Curriculum*, William M. Alexander, editor (San Francisco: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967), pp. 445-448.

different approaches to curriculum has been made available through the Cooperative Research Program under the United States Office of Education. The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (Public Law 89-10) has also opened new possibilities for educational experimentation and innovation.

Although the evidence points to an acceleration of the change process in the schools, the gap existing between the researcher and the schoolman continues to retard the process. The last decade has brought about a wealth of new ideas, but not enough of the new ideas have reached the classroom. Ianni said that:

. . . neither the efforts to innovate nor the arrangements for diffusing innovation have been developed on a scale that even approaches the need. There have been some very significant programs of experimentation which led to change in the schools, but by and large they have come from the scientific and scholarly community rather than what we traditionally consider an educational research.⁴²

The Change Process

Studies of districts, states, and areas where planned change has been undertaken reveal some common elements, both in procedures and in problems. Also clearly shown is that change occurs in stages.

From his study regarding the dynamics of educational change in New York State, Brickell concluded that the design, evaluation, and dissemination of innovations are three distinctly different processes involved in change. He said that:

. . . our failure to distinguish--indeed, our dogged refusal to recognize--the three phases of change is the most formidable

⁴²Ibid., p. 445.

block to instructional improvement today. . . . the field of education is organized on the assumption that all phases can occur simultaneously in a single setting.⁴³

Brickell further discussed the process of change occurring in the local schools as a three step procedure. The first step is deciding upon change. In this step of the procedure the most persuasive way of deciding is to visit another school and observe the program under consideration in action. The second step is introducing the change. Here he stated that the most successful innovations in the local schools are those which are accompanied by the most elaborate help to teachers as they begin the new instructional program. The amount of help provided to the teachers is a critical factor in determining the success of the innovation. The feelings of inadequacy and uncertainty often expressed early in the process of introducing change into the district should be distinguished from outright resistance to the change. Uncertainties diminish with experience which probably explains why teachers begin to prefer new programs after they have worked in them for several months. The third step in change processes in the local school is evaluation. Here it seems that the "Hawthorne effect" goes hand in hand with educational innovation. Higher production is evidently stimulated by change which does not alter the original resources but does offer recognition and group approval of higher goals. Evaluation is almost always evaluated by observing the reactions of students receiving the new instruction. Complex techniques are seldom used to evaluate

⁴³Henry M. Brickell, "State Organization for Educational Change: A Case Study and a Proposal," *Innovation in Education*, Matthew B. Miles, editor (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), p. 502.

educational innovations and never outweigh student reaction to the process.⁴⁴

In 1963 Johnson⁴⁵ made a study in California to assess the actual effects of the NDEA Title III legislation in foreign language, science and mathematics at the local school level. He reported that five out of six administrators felt that significant changes had taken place in their instructional programs, and two out of three felt that these changes in program had brought about equally significant changes in the organization for instruction within their school. School districts, however, reported that they had been unable to complete their inservice plans, or to conduct adequate evaluation of either existing or changed programs. The changes and improvements noted did not occur within the traditional boundaries of curriculum change which followed these steps: (1) evaluation of existing program; (2) review of the literature to determine more effective methods; (3) revision of course of study and teachers guides, incorporating modifications suggested by the research; (4) acquisition of additional equipment and materials needed for the modified instructional plan; (5) inservice meetings conducted by administrative and supervisory staff in the use of the new equipment; (6) introduction of the new program to the classrooms. In attempting to find out how the change had occurred, he found that the number of

⁴⁴Brickell, op. cit., pp. 503-506.

⁴⁵Donald W. Johnson, "Title III and the Dynamics of Educational Change in California Schools," Innovation in Education, Matthew B. Miles, editor (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964) pp. 157-182.

teachers involved in the program change determined the way the change was effected. Where only a small number of teachers were involved as in a high school physics program the change could be effected by (1) sending one or two teachers to a summer institute or workshop; (2) providing consultant help to insure that the resulting experimental course was being taught as specified by the institute; (3) having the experimental and other physics teachers meet frequently during the year; (4) gaining approval from the board of education to continue experimentation for a second year; (5) submitting an NDEA project for equipment and consultant help; (6) holding a workshop of three to seven weeks for physics teachers; and (7) having all physics teachers institute the new program with constant consultant help.

At the elementary level administrators reported that they had difficulty instituting programs of change uniformly among all teachers. Teachers' varying motivations and tempos of learning new knowledges and skills plus the inability of the administrative and supervisory staff to provide effective leadership in the substantive content of new programs made in-service training through workshops and teachers' independent efforts to obtain needed training ineffective. In addition, the process centering around provision of new equipment and materials appeared to be cyclical. New equipment was first rejected or preference for a different kind was expressed. After the preferred equipment was purchased, the teachers accepted responsibility for securing the needed skills on their own time and at their own expense. The equipment and materials were then introduced to the classrooms and further informal evaluation was made. This was followed by another cycle of change.

Johnson summarized the foregoing process by saying:

The three main aspects of this informal change process appeared to be (1) increased depth of involvement by the individual teacher, (2) increased numbers of teachers included, and (3) enrichment in the quantity and quality of instructional equipment and materials made available to teachers and students.⁴⁶

The three most common problems that faced districts as they endeavored to strengthen and improve their programs were: (1) shortage of money; (2) lack of consultants and administrative staff to conduct in-service programs; and (3) difficulty in obtaining teachers capable of effective instruction in the changed science, mathematics, and modern foreign language programs. Because of this difficulty in obtaining capable teachers the most frequently requested service from the State Bureau of NDEA Administration was for increased consultant services for the conduct of in-service training programs.⁴⁷

A number of studies have attempted to ascertain the factors and practices involved in adaptation and diffusion. Demeter generalized on what appeared to be the salient factors in the introduction and diffusion of practices in Metropolitan School Study Councils. He listed the factors as the following eight points:

1. Effective introduction and diffusion is taking place in communities where there is recognition of a need for keeping constantly in touch with new ideas and practices. . . .
2. The early introduction and spread of new ideas is the result of a deliberate design and program for keeping the school system in touch with the latest educational developments.
3. The "local steering committee" (a deliberately organized

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 171.

⁴⁷Ibid., p. 172.

group of administrators and teachers who function as a reception committee for new ideas) plays a vital role in the adaptation process.

4. The presence of an individual, a "spark plug," who champions the introduction and diffusion of new materials appears to be very helpful.

5. Building principals are key figures in the process. Where they are both aware of and sympathetic to an invention, it tends to prosper. Where they are ignorant of its existence, or apathetic if not hostile, it tends to remain outside the blood stream of the school.

6. Effective introduction and diffusion tend to be accelerated when connected with already ongoing activities.

7. Where more than one technique and device and numerous publicity media are used, there appears to be more effective introduction and use than in cases where a lone approach is made.

8. Indications are that regional meetings for principals and supervisors can play an important role in the introduction and effective use of new materials.⁴⁸

Farnsworth traced the history of five achieved changes in the schools of New York, Massachusetts, and Connecticut. He found the following ten characteristics occurring to make a general pattern of the adaptation processes:

1. Some circumstance, condition, or event accentuated the need.
2. A leader or small group recognized the need and made the condition of need articulate.
3. Solutions were proposed to ameliorate the condition of need.
4. Trial attempts at solution were initiated, generally by private individual groups.
5. Financial aid from private, local, or state sources helped in the introduction of the service.
6. Studies of conditions were made to determine the extent of the need.
7. Official approval of the proposed solutions was sought.

⁴⁸Lee H. Demeter, "Accelerating the Local Use of Improved Educational Practices in School Systems," as quoted in Administration for Adaptability, Donald R. Ross, editor (New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1958), p. 171.

8. Lay and professional individuals and groups advocated official approval by various methods.
9. Official approval was given, with an agency designated to promote and supervise the service.
10. Some form of state and federal stimulation--grant-in-aid, etc.--has encouraged further introduction and development of the service.⁴⁹

To know the stages of diffusion and the steps involved in producing a change is of value in planning for change. Nevertheless, some plan of action is needed to bring innovation to the attention of those who should know about it and use it. According to Guba, there are essentially six modes for the diffuser to use:

(a) he can tell, (newsletters, papers, conferences, conversations, etc.); (b) he can show (participant observation, demonstration, films, etc.); (c) he can help (consultation, service, etc. rendered on the adopter's terms); (d) he can involve (include or coopt the adopter); (e) he can train (familiarize with the innovation through courses, workshops, T-sessions, etc.); and (f) he can intervene (i. e., involve himself in affairs of the adopter on his [the diffuser's] terms). The diffuser will have to select from among these six that technique or combination of techniques best suited to his purpose.⁵⁰

Characteristics of the Innovator

Those who are among the first to adopt a new practice or who try something new possess certain qualities in common. Rogers isolated the characteristics of innovators with special reference to the process of social change. He drew his information from the research

⁴⁹ Philo T. Farnsworth, "Adaptation Processes in Public School Systems as Illustrated by a Study of Five Selected Innovations in Educational Service in New York, Connecticut, and Massachusetts," cited in Administration for Adaptability, Donald R. Ross, editor (New York: Metropolitan School Study Council, 1958) p. 82.

⁵⁰ Egon G. Guba, "Diffusion of Innovation," Educational Leadership, 25:292-295, January 1968.

from rural sociology, industrial engineering, anthropology, and when possible from education. He was able to make the following statements about the salient characteristics of innovators.

1. Innovators generally are young. . . .
2. Innovators have relatively high social status, in terms of amount of education, prestige ratings, and income. . . .
3. Impersonal and cosmopolite sources of information are important to innovators. . . .
4. Innovators are cosmopolite. . . .
5. Innovators exert opinion leadership. . . .
6. Innovators are likely to be viewed as deviants by their peers and by themselves. . . .⁵¹

II. LITERATURE CONCERNING SCHOOL DISTRICT ORGANIZATION AND LEADERSHIP

The literature on change has suggested that the structure or organization of a school district as well as the local leadership may be pertinent factors in change for that district. The organization and the interrelationships of administrative personnel affect not only the climate for change but actual change itself. The lines of authority and functions of leadership are tied to the organizational structure of the school.

In Section I the administrator, usually the superintendent--sometimes the principal--was seen as the advocate for change in the local district. The point was made that the administrator represented the highest authority in a hierarchial system and his attitude could be such as to permit, foster, induce, mandate or forbid change. The

⁵¹ Everett M. Rogers, "What Are Innovators Like?" Change Processes in Education (Eugene, Oregon: The Center for the Advanced Study of Educational Administration, University of Oregon, 1965), pp. 55-60.

principal was seen as being in a position to further change and innovation as he was usually given responsibility for supervision in his own building.

A concept that is implicit in reference to a hierarchical organization is that of line and staff. Although authors do not agree as to whether the line and staff arrangement is beneficial, necessary, or democratic, they do show agreement on what line and staff organization is. The line and staff idea is a theory of personal interrelationships within an organization which delimits the actions of any one individual and defines the way he may work in his area. It also determines the manner in which people may work together. By describing the job functions specifically the line and staff operation has resulted in specialization in jobs and has augmented institutional stratification and hierarchical control.⁵²

Operationally, under this kind of organization the directing function proceeds from the top administrator through defined lines of authority to the person with lowest status in the organization. Authority flows in a direct line from the top administrator to the classroom. Line positions hold delegated authority. In general, line officers are responsible for activities relating directly to providing educational services for the students.⁵³

The staff position has functional authority only. It is technical,

⁵² Alfred H. Skogsberg, Administrative Operational Patterns (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1950), pp. 1-8.

⁵³ Stephen J. Knezevich, Administration of Public Education (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1962), pp. 71-74.

advisory and lacks the authority to command. The staff officer may issue directions only to a given group of educational activities only in the name of the line officer to whose office he is attached.⁵⁴

The superintendent and principal have been identified as line officers. Those persons in the division of curriculum development and supervision of instruction are staff officers. According to Babcock this is an appropriate way to structure the school organization because:

The supervision of curriculum development and of the instructional program in the classroom is fundamentally a service rather than an administrative function. . . . supervision of instruction in the classroom should be removed as far as possible from the "authority" role. It should be removed as far as possible from the "line and staff" relationship.⁵⁵

The public schools have used three major approaches to organization for various functions within the school systems. They are centralization, decentralization and central coordination. While plans for instructional improvement within any one district will develop its own specific organization, in general, they tend to follow one of these three procedures.

The centralized approach is based upon the philosophy that instructional improvement should be initiated, planned, managed and conducted by persons in the central office of the entire system rather than upon the concerns of an individual or of an individual school building. The premise is that what is successful practice in one situation

⁵⁴Skogsberg, loc. cit.

⁵⁵Chester D. Babcock, "The Emerging Role of the Curriculum Leader," Role of Supervisor and Curriculum Director in a Climate of Change, ASCD 1965 Yearbook (Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1965), p. 59.

will be good practice for all. Central office personnel determine the goals and prescribe the techniques and methodology for attaining the goals.

The decentralized approach implies that instructional improvement is the responsibility of the individual school or individual teacher. The problems, the methods of solving and the activities engaged in for instructional improvement are determined by the individual school. The superintendent may be advised of what the group at the particular school is doing, but he assumes minimal responsibility for initiation, direction, and coordination of the program. The decentralized approach is of recent origin. It has the particular advantage of focusing upon the specific problems in the local environment. It also appears to guarantee a maximum of teacher participation and a minimum of central office domination and interference.

The centrally coordinated approach to instructional improvement implies that there is need for both general authority and individual responsibility. In this approach the individual teachers, the individual schools and the central office staff work together to improve the programs. They work together on common problems, yet individual problems may also receive attention and special service.⁵⁶

Leadership within the school district comes from the individuals who perform different roles within the organization. Leadership exists,

⁵⁶ American Association of School Administrators, *The Superintendent as Instructional Leader*, *Thirty-Fifth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators* (Washington, D.C.: American Association of School Administrators, 1957), pp. 169-172.

according to Stogdill, only insofar as individuals who are members of the organization are differentiated as to the influence they exert upon the organization and "the leadership influence of any one member will be determined to a large degree by the total leadership structure of the organization."⁵⁷ Leadership has commonly been held to mean a combination of qualities in an individual which command confidence and respect of one's fellows. These qualities induce others to follow the policies and the plans and decisions of the leader. Research, however, has helped to explode this idea according to Smith, Stanley and Shores who said, "nowadays. . . [leadership] is conceived as a functional role of a group member, played by an individual at a particular time in a particular group of people."⁵⁸ The idea of leadership as a functional role has emerged within the framework of democratic processes. The earlier concept of leadership was what might be called a mechanistic view where a superior authority fostered control and management of group authority. A functional view of leadership allows almost anyone to assume the role, provided he is willing and able to do so. The leadership role within a group, then, may pass from one member to another depending upon the individual's ability to promote or assist the remainder of the group in attaining its goals. Weisbrod

⁵⁷Ralph M. Stogdill, "Leadership, Membership and Organization, " Group Dynamics, Research and Theory, Dorwin Cartwright and Alvin Zander, editors (Evanston, Illinois: Row, Peterson and Company, 1953), p. 50.

⁵⁸B. Othanel Smith, William O. Stanley and J. Harlan Shores, Fundamentals of Curriculum Development (New York: World Book Company, 1957), p. 459.

described the functional leader in this way:

As other participants assume leadership by contributing to group needs, the mature leader is not threatened by status loss or possible failure since the entire group becomes responsible for its own learning. The mature leader is inquiring without evaluating, selecting without excluding, inspiring and stimulating without manipulating. His purpose is to serve as an aid in process without coercion or repression. Tolerant of deficiencies and confident of results, he is patient with progress. The dimensions of change through this kind of leadership are difficult to measure since they extend beyond the situation. Arising from a mutual awareness of need, expanding through involvement, cooperation and purpose, the learning assumes personal meaning beyond the factual knowledge gained which commits the participant to practice what he has learned.⁵⁹

A distinction between status roles and functional leadership should be made at this point. The functional leadership role has been elaborated in the foregoing paragraphs, but some of the positions in the school organization endow their possessors with leadership status and functional leadership qualities are not requisite for holding the position.

Usually school organization follows some form of line and staff pattern in which the line consists of the superintendent at the top followed by principals, department heads and teachers in the order named. This order defines the channel of power and official communication. The staff, comprised of supervisors, research workers, curriculum directors and the like, constitutes the advisory body for the district. The individuals in the top positions of the line organization are usually recognized as occupying positions of leadership. These are

⁵⁹Kenneth Weisbrod, "The Role of Leadership," Educational Leadership, 20:159-160, December, 1962.

positions of status and carry not only official power but also prestige. The persons who hold them are able to encourage, discourage, initiate or stop any change or course of action. These are the individuals who, by virtue of their positions, are the key persons in a school district. They are the leaders who have been termed by Smith, Stanley and Shores "status leaders occupying status positions."⁶⁰

Status leaders may also be functional leaders. When a status leader assumes the role of a group member and helps the group define its needs and acts as a positive force in the direction of the group's goals, then he is a leader in a functional sense. A status leader, when measured by this definition, may be a barrier rather than a means to a group in its efforts to satisfy its need. As Smith, Stanley and Shores have put it:

Whether a status leader is a barrier or a positive force in the eyes of the group does not depend upon his official position, but upon his capacity to serve the group as it seeks to clarify its sense of direction and its problems and to work out ways of moving in the direction the group sets for itself.⁶¹

Functional leadership by the status leaders in a school is a requisite for curriculum development or improvement. The demands made by the school board members, the faculty and the community upon the status leader--that he "run" the school or that he have all the answers--frequently serve to drive him deeper into status leadership and to use his official position and power to accomplish objectives. In the words of Smith, Stanley and Shores, "thus step by step the status leader,

⁶⁰Smith, Stanley and Shores, op. cit., p. 460.

⁶¹Ibid., pp. 460-461.

unless he acquires the know-how of functional leadership, goes down the path to outright autocracy or to a milder form called paternalism."⁶² Without functional leadership curriculum change is unlikely and if it should occur, it is of doubtful duration.

The organization of the school, therefore, and the kinds of leadership existing or developing within the district are influences facilitating or inhibiting educational change.

III. LITERATURE ON USE OF CONSULTANTS

The use of consultants and resource people from outside the local school district has long been an accepted practice for supplementing a district's own resources. Even though the supervisory and administrative staff is knowledgeable and competent, someone from outside the district may have more impact.

The reasons for calling upon a specialist from another source are many. A visiting consultant may stimulate interest in a curriculum development program. Stimulation may be the most important function of the visiting consultant. An outside consultant can give help in defining and analyzing local curriculum problems. The visitor can consider the local problem objectively, unhampered by tensions or frustrations that may exist as the result of previous attempts at local revision. He encourages a fresh approach to problems. He can ignore special interests of specialist teachers and approach the curriculum problem from the needs of the students. Frequently, the

⁶²Ibid., p. 461.

outside consultant can give assistance in organizing the local teachers for curriculum planning. As part of the organizing process he may be able to help define the curriculum responsibilities of the various members of the school personnel--teachers, supervisors, principals, department heads, etc. As specialists in some particular area the outside consultant may bring to the curriculum committees knowledge and skills not possessed by the average teacher or administrator in the local school system. The consultant may also bring accounts of experimental programs being carried on in other localities.⁶³

Consultants to serve the local district's needs may be drawn from numerous sources. Probably the most common source used by the public schools is the university or college. From such sources two kinds of consultants may be secured: the subject matter specialist and the education and teacher training specialist. Another widely used source is other public school systems. Offices of the county and state superintendents of public instruction as well as the United States Office of Education have knowledgeable personnel who may be called upon for consultant services. Publishers of textbooks and producers of instructional materials also have consultants whose services are available to schools. Non-profit organizations such as The National Conference of Christians and Jews and the Anti-Defamation League, offer another source for consultants. Within the community are usually

⁶³Edward A. Krug, Chester D. Babcock, John Guy Fowlkes and H. T. James, Administering Curriculum Planning (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1956), pp. 202-209.

those who can give assistance with their specialized skills and knowledge. National professional organizations provide still another source for consultants.⁶⁴

Spears, in his book on curriculum planning, described six in-service situations in which outside consultants were used. In each case the consultants were from universities or colleges. In Auburn, Maine, the consultants were from the University of Maine. They worked with the teachers to develop an outline of a program for the major learning areas for the junior primary grades through grade six. They met for one full day a month with special meetings in between for individual committees. A two day workshop preceded the beginning of the school year. Because the district lacked funds to support the program, the teachers paid the bill by organizing the work for a three hour university credit course and paying tuition to the university.⁶⁵

In Chattanooga, Tennessee, the consultants were brought in from colleges and from the state department of education as they were needed to help the local faculties in their curriculum study.⁶⁶

Mesa, Arizona, brought a team of college professors from Arizona State College at Tempe to work with school district personnel for four hours weekly in a workshop to iron out a philosophy and the details of operation for a new school. College personnel were also

⁶⁴Ibid., pp. 204-209.

⁶⁵Harold Spears, Curriculum Planning Through In-Service Programs (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1957), p. 107.

⁶⁶Ibid., p. 201.

invited to Mesa to assist the staff in improving content and methods of various courses and departments.⁶⁷

St. Paul, Minnesota, organized workshops of six sessions of one hour and forty minutes each. The consultants who helped in these workshops were selected by the teacher committees and the administration. Most of the consultants were from local universities or colleges. The workshops often grew out of teacher requests.⁶⁸

In San Francisco the in-service developed out of the teachers' expressed interests and the school's needs. The consultants came from nearby campuses.⁶⁹

The ways in which consultants are used are varied. Krug, et al., say that no pattern can be outlined as to how they can be used most effectively. However, they do make the following suggestions: use as speakers before large groups; use as resource people bringing specialized skills and knowledge to committees and other small groups working on specific curriculum areas; use with the training of a small leadership group within the corps. Other ways are possible--probably as many ways as there are school districts.⁷⁰

The ways for using consultants, as just indicated, are numerous and varied. The district designs a format for utilization of the consultant services most appropriate for facilitating the achievement of the

⁶⁷Ibid., pp. 183-191.

⁶⁸Ibid., pp. 98-99.

⁶⁹Ibid., pp. 319-321.

⁷⁰Krug, et al., op. cit., pp. 215-218.

district goals. This, according to Miles, is establishing a temporary system.⁷¹ The unique function of a temporary system is that it is set up to bring about change in persons, groups and organizations. The defining concept of a temporary system is that it is of anticipated duration. The termination may be identified chronologically or be linked to a specific event or achievement of pre-set goals.

Temporary systems serve to keep or maintain a person or group in the surrounding social system. They provide for the accomplishment of particular tasks more expeditiously or productively than the permanent system. While the temporary system is in operation all energies focus upon a particular task and terminate when the task is completed. Temporary systems include formats with diverse objectives such as conferences, conventions, retreats, and training institutes. These systems are designed to alter or benefit their participants in some way. Other temporary systems include ad hoc "task forces" or project teams which focus around the short term accomplishment of specific goals. The basic or applied research projects is another temporary system which is sharply limited at the outset in terms of its effective life. When the project has discovered or applied certain knowledge it will die. The design for working with a consultant from outside the district is another form of a temporary system as both the consultant and district regard the arrangement as temporary. Miles said of the consultant system:

⁷¹Matthew B. Miles, "On Temporary Systems," Innovation in Education, Matthew B. Miles, editor (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1964), pp. 437-490.

The consulting system formed by a consultant and a client group or organization can be thought of as a temporary arrangement as well; a permanent organization has a new-comer attached to it for a (usually specified) period of time, thus forming, in effect, a new system.⁷²

Permanent systems find change difficult as was noted earlier in this chapter. Miles said that this is so because in a permanent system the major portion of available energy goes to carrying out routine operations and maintaining the existing relationships within the system. The energy left over for matters of diagnosis, planning, innovation, deliberate change, and growth is ordinarily very small.

IV. SUMMARY OF THE LITERATURE REVIEWED

This chapter has reviewed literature from selected fields which was pertinent to the study herein reported. That change in any part of the school system is affected by numerous factors was shown. The influences and forces which facilitate and block change were reviewed. The forces which tended to facilitate change in the educational system may be briefly summarized as follows. Financial aid from some outside source stimulates interest in introducing new programs and allows districts to step beyond their budgeted resources to try innovative ideas. The school with good "organizational health" as shown by an internal structure characterized by goal focus, communication adequacy, power equalization, and the like, provides a favorable climate within the school for change. This, plus adequate leadership along functional lines, promotes an environment in which new ideas

⁷²Ibid., p. 439.

and programs are accepted. The foregoing factors represent influences which permit change to occur.

Some conditions were seen which force change in the schools. Increased scientific activity and interest forced changes within the schools, not only in the development of new programs and teaching methods, materials and devices, but also in ways of bringing a team approach to the solving of educational problems. The needs and demands of a rapidly changing society and the increasingly urbanized social environment provided a powerful force for change in the schools.

The influences for change were identified as internal and external. The internal forces for change were shown to be more effective than external forces as well as being more beneficial and bringing more lasting change.

Many of the influences which tend to block change in the schools appear to be the reverse of the forces which facilitate. In other words, the same influences for change, when they are negative within a district, block or inhibit change within the educational system. Lack of financial resources keeps a school from instituting changes. This same lack of funds causes a district to operate with inadequate staff, consultants, and capable teachers. The organization of a school may be such that change is not possible. The leadership within the district may be entirely that of status, and without functional leadership, change is severely retarded. When the organization of the district exhibits characteristics such as goal ambiguity, low interdependence and low technological investment, change is unlikely to occur. Because the school is a social institution it is subject to the forces of the society,

but also through the years it has become a protected institution and thus slow to change. Change in the school requires that many persons change which complicates the process. Three additional categories of blocking influences were discussed. The first of these was the lack in education of a change agent who acts as a mediator between the researcher and the classroom. The second was that education has a weak knowledge base in the absence of valid research findings. Thirdly, education lacks a communication network which can inform local districts and teachers about innovations appropriate for use in their situations. Neither have feedback channels been established. Educational research and innovation, therefore, have low visibility and those who were open to change have been left in ignorance of the possibilities for change.

Change does not appear in the schools all at once, but occurs in stages. This chapter reviewed the steps in the process of change and the characteristics of the innovator.

Literature on the use of consultants and the characteristics of the temporary systems which utilize consultant services was included in the review.

CHAPTER IV

COLLECTION OF DATA

The investigator recognized that in the social sciences, sometimes

. . . the prospector will set out in search of one thing and come back with something entirely different, which he has learned to regard as far more significant and important.¹

It was important, nevertheless, to set up the design and criteria for the field study before the investigation could begin.

I. PROCEDURES

Since the question to be answered was: What influences contributed to bringing about curriculum change in selected educational agencies which employed consultants in the social sciences through NDEA Title III-B, this is not to be interpreted as a survey but as a depth study. The considerations which entered into defining the field for study are detailed in the following paragraphs.

To do the study adequately, it was necessary to have a field with a sufficient number of districts with funded projects to identify the similarities and patterns that emerged as the projects were accomplished, but not so large a field that depth study would be unwieldy. Limiting the number of independent units to be studied would permit such study. Subsequently, the field was determined to be urban

¹John Madge, The Tools of Social Science (Garden City: Doubleday and Company, Inc., 1965), p. xxx.

school districts within a sixty mile radius of Stockton, California, which had projects during the school years 1965-1966 and 1966-1967 funded under NDEA Title III-B in civics, economics, geography and/or history for elementary grades K-6.

Because the investigator had specialized in elementary curriculum and had special interest in the social sciences, projects for Kindergarten through grade six in the social sciences were selected.

Selecting a geographic area and population centers also served to define the field. Two geographic centers were logical places from which to work. Since the State Department of Education was located in Sacramento, the Capitol city, an area surrounding Sacramento would have been one possibility. An area surrounding Stockton offered a second possibility as it was the location of the University of the Pacific which was guiding the investigator in the study. By scribing a sixty mile radius from each city the areas were compared.

The Stockton area drew from five of California's Standard Statistical Areas as well as from the less densely populated agricultural valley and the more sparsely populated grazing and mining lands in the foothills. An area scribed the same radius from Sacramento included fewer Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, but much more agricultural land. When districts with the projects were located on the map, it was found that the area surrounding Stockton contained thirty-two submitting agencies and seventy-eight projects. The Sacramento area contained nineteen submitting agencies and forty-three projects. The Stockton area was selected as it included more units from which a cross section could be taken wherein all

cases could be studied. Figure 1 is a map showing the selected area including the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas and the major population centers within the area.

Table I summarizes the numbers of applications submitted for project funds under NDEA Title III-B for the social sciences in the State of California during the years of the study. For the school year 1965-1966, eighty-six educational agencies submitted 144 applications for NDEA Title III-B funds in the social sciences of which 99 were approved for consultant services. The following year, 84 agencies submitted 122 applications of which 107 were approved. A total of 142 agencies made 266 requests for assistance in the social sciences through Title III-B. Two hundred and six applications were approved.

The 21 applying educational agencies in the geographic area of this study submitted 38 applications in 1965-1966. This was 24.5 per cent of all submitted in the State and 26.4 per cent of all proposals submitted in that year. Twenty-three of the project applications were funded, representing 23.2 per cent of all statewide approvals for 1965-1966. The following year, 1966-1967, 23 agencies submitted applications or 27.4 per cent of all submitting agencies for Title III-B funding in the social sciences in California were from this area. These 23 agencies submitted 40 applications in the social sciences which was 32.8 per cent of all Title III-B projects in social sciences for California. The 34 approved applications were 31.6 per cent of all applications in California for 1966-1967.

For the two year period of this study, 22.5 per cent of all educational agencies requesting funds through Title III-B in civics,

FIGURE 1
A MAP SHOWING THE SCRIBED GEOGRAPHIC AREA IN CALIFORNIA
FOR THE STUDY OF NDEA TITLE III-B PROJECTS IN THE
SOCIAL SCIENCES FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

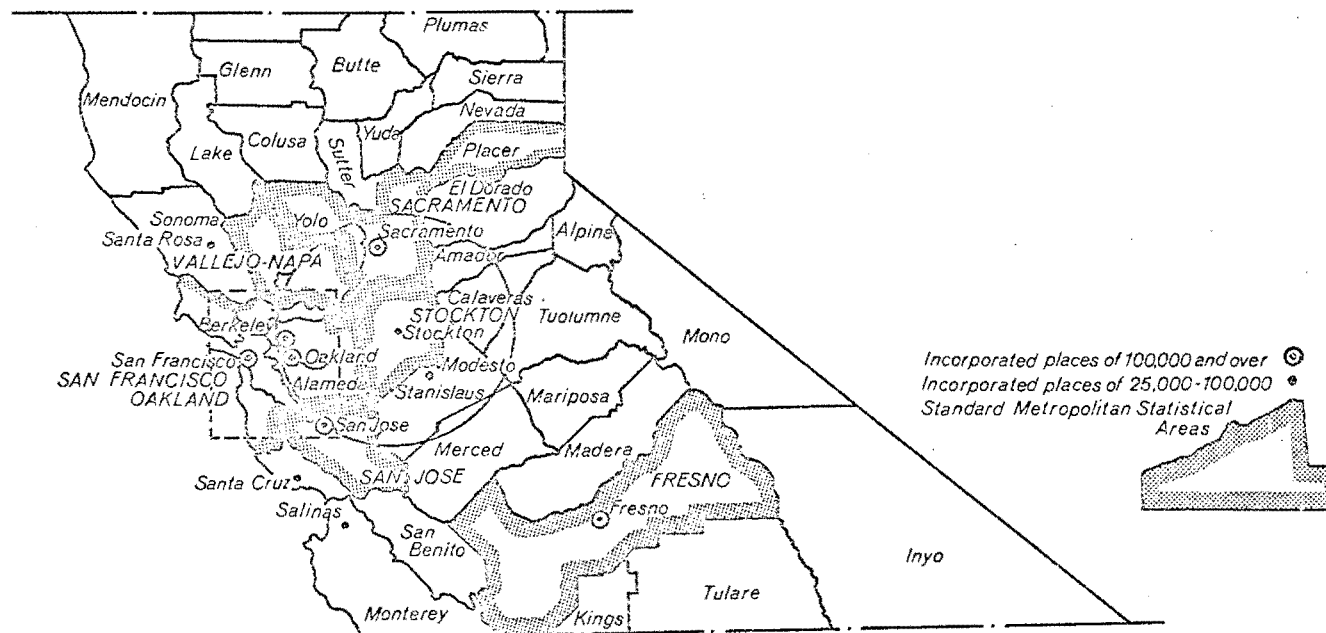


TABLE I

NDEA TITLE III-B PROJECTS IN CIVICS, ECONOMICS, GEOGRAPHY
AND HISTORY FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS IN THE STATE OF
CALIFORNIA AND IN THE SELECTED GEOGRAPHIC AREA
SUBMITTED FOR THE SCHOOL YEARS OF
1965-1966 AND 1966-1967

	1965-1966			1966-1967			Totals		
	<i>California</i>	<i>Selected Geographic Area</i>	<i>Per Cent in the Selected Area</i>	<i>California</i>	<i>Selected Geographic Area</i>	<i>Per Cent in the Selected Area</i>	<i>California</i>	<i>Selected Geographic Area</i>	<i>Per Cent in the Selected Area</i>
Agencies Submitting Applications	86	21	24.5	84	23	27.4	142	32	22.5
Applications Submitted	144	38	26.4	122	40	32.8	266	78	29.3
Applications Approved	99	23	23.2	107	34	31.6	206	57	27.7

geography, economics and history were from the area encompassed within a sixty mile radius of Stockton. A total of 78 applications for the projects were approved or 29.3 per cent of all proposals submitted in this field. Fifty-seven proposals were approved or 27.7 per cent of the approved applications in social sciences for Title III-B funds were from this area.

In order to have a field of districts that could be studied inclusively so as to avoid selection bias, the investigation was limited to urban school districts as defined in Chapter I. Although the geographic area included metropolitan, urban and rural school districts, as well as county offices, only urban districts were used. Urban centers have school districts less large than metropolitan centers, but are large enough to submit project applications independently and to carry out their own curriculum plans. School districts serving large cities have much larger administrative staffs and more far flung attendance centers for elementary children. Because, as the size of an interactive group increases, the number of interrelationships increases rapidly, as well as the complexity of the group as a whole,² metropolitan districts were eliminated. Rural districts and county offices were eliminated because they often have cooperative projects involving all of the districts within a county. Such cooperative projects present the same problems of complexity as do the metropolitan districts.

The next step was to identify according to the foregoing criteria

²Madge, op. cit., p. 16.

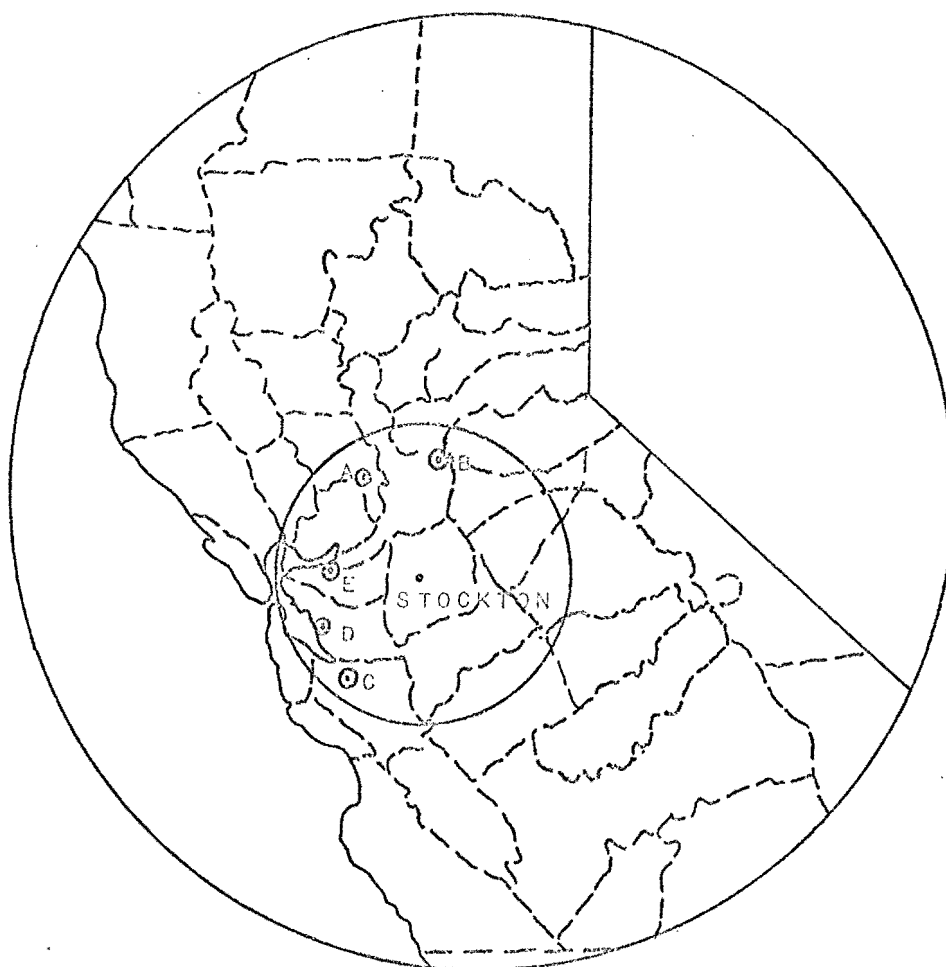
the cross section of the population which comprised the field for study. For the two year period 1965-1966 and 1966-1967, 78 applications were submitted from the Stockton area to the State Bureau of NDEA for funding in the social sciences under Title III-B. None of the applications were from rural districts. Eight county offices submitted applications. As stated before, these were not considered in the study as they represented a cooperative type of project where more than one school district was involved. Two high school districts and three junior colleges also submitted project applications. When the criteria were applied to the remaining nineteen districts and their applications, five school districts and six projects made up the field for investigation. One district had a project approved for each of the two years. Figure 2 shows the location of the five school districts which met the criteria and had funded NDEA Title III-B projects in the social sciences for elementary grades.

In addition to gathering data from the project applications themselves, further information was gathered by interviewing the districts' personnel and consultants. The State Bureau of NDEA and the Bureau of Educational Programs and Subject Specialists were sources of much needed additional information. Various other secondary sources such as the statistical reports from the State Department of Education regarding all school districts in California were used.

The Bureau of Educational Programs and Subject Specialists had itemized forty-nine categories of data from the project applications submitted for Title III-B funds in the social sciences for the two year period. All requests, regardless of whether approved or disapproved for funding, were included in the listing. From this index,

FIGURE 2

A MAP SHOWING THE URBAN DISTRICTS IN THE SELECTED
GEOGRAPHIC AREA WHICH FULFILLED THE CRITERIA FOR
THE STUDY OF NDEA TITLE III-B PROJECTS IN THE
SOCIAL SCIENCES FOR ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS



- COUNTY LINES
⊙ DISTRICTS MEETING THE CRITERIA
• CENTER FROM WHICH THE AREA WAS SCRIBED --
60 MILE RADIUS

nineteen categories of information were gleaned for all of the submitting educational agencies in the area. They were:

1. Identification of the proposal (project number)
2. Identification of counties
3. Identification of school districts
4. Descriptive title of consultant
5. Consultant use--in-service education
6. Consultant use--program planning
7. Consultant use--other than in-service or program planning
8. Character of consultant use
9. Character of planning
10. Character of in-service education
11. Who prepared the proposal (directed the project)
12. Grade levels involved in the project
13. Number of pupils affected by the program
14. Number of teachers participating in the program
15. Number of administrators participating in the program
16. Days of service allocated
17. Days of service used
18. Number of days allocated--actual
19. Number of days used--actual

To supplement the information from the proposals themselves and to accomplish the objectives of the study, the districts studied were visited and staff members interviewed. Two questionnaires were constructed and used with the interviews (see Appendices C and D).

All data cited in this study have been taken from the foregoing sources.

II. THE DATA

Since each project was written to fill the unique needs of individual districts, all of the project proposals and the accomplishment of the proposals proceeded in different ways. Some common strands of procedures ran through all projects, however, so the data concerning each district may be presented along these lines.

The Districts

Four kinds of school district organization existed in the five districts studied. Two were joint unified school districts which meant that both of those districts enrolled students in grades kindergarten through twelve and the district territory was in two or more counties. One was a unified district which also enrolled students from kindergarten through grade twelve but whose district boundaries were contained in one county. One was an elementary district serving children in grades kindergarten through eight. The fifth district was a union elementary district which also meant that kindergarten through eighth grade children were enrolled. To become a union district, however, two or more elementary districts had unionized, or elected to become a single district.

Although all of the districts were classified as urban, they varied in composition. Four were in fast growing urban-suburban areas. Two of the four were unincorporated suburban communities; one, a charter city, was industrial; and one was a university town

which also served as a suburb for the state capital. The fifth district, although large enough to be classified in the urban category, was in a rural setting and was little affected by urbanization.

District A. District A, one of the joint unified districts, with an enrollment for 1967-1968 of 4,297, had seven elementary schools. It was in a university town situated in an agricultural area with little industry. The university shaped the character of the community.

District B. District B, also a joint unified school district, drew from more than one community. Part of the district was an incorporated town with its surrounding agricultural area. The remainder drew from a large suburban unincorporated area. The district was located so that it included a large defense industry and a Strategic Air Command base. A state prison and a large recreational area surrounding a dam were also within its boundaries. It had fourteen elementary schools and a district enrollment of 10,782 pupils.

District C. District C was an elementary school district serving a charter city in the fast growing San Jose Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area. The city was widely known for its industry, especially in the electronics field. A large Naval Air Station was in the district as well. The district had eighteen elementary schools and enrolled 19,358 pupils in the 1967-1968 school year.

District D. The unified school, District D, served an unincorporated suburban area. The district was largely a residential community for those who worked in the San Francisco-Oakland area. Sixteen elementary schools were operated. For the school year 1967-1968 the district enrollment was 9,880.

District E. The union elementary school, District E, drew from a town of approximately 5,000 and the surrounding agricultural community. Because of the excellent fishing available within the district, vacationers were attracted to the area. The district had two schools which enrolled 900 pupils.

The Project Purposes

Two kinds of influences act to initiate change: internal and external. Although it has been shown in Chapter III that the external forces are more powerful, the internal forces are more beneficial. The funds from NDEA Title III-B were an external force which helped stimulate the project proposals. Purposes for projects were outlined on the proposal form, but the interviews focused upon the purposes in more depth. By investigating the projects' purposes it was hypothesized that internal forces for change at work within the districts would be revealed.

Each district had specific needs which the project was to fulfill. Although the statements of purposes to be checked on the application form were inclusive, they were also general so that the districts could exercise autonomy both in planning and in accomplishing their projects. The purposes listed on the application were in two categories: (1) in-service and (2) program planning and evaluation. In-service purposes on the application included (a) demonstration of new methods, content, techniques and equipment; (b) review of recent curriculum trends; and (c) staff orientation to new programs, purposes and content. Program planning and evaluation purposes which were listed included (a) review of new programs or curriculum developments;

(b) review and evaluation of present program; (c) identification and selection of program ideas; and (d) definition of program objectives.

Two districts, A and D, checked purposes as listed above for in-service only in the use of consultants. One district, District B, checked only program planning and evaluation uses for consultants. The remaining two, Districts C and E, indicated both in-service and program planning purposes.

In addition to the purposes listed on the application form, other purposes could be added by the applying agency. District C added a statement of another objective in program planning: the development of a scope and sequence for social studies to be followed by the development of resource materials to implement the scope and sequence. District B, which had indicated no in-service objectives, also included a statement under program planning requesting planning sessions with consultants to set up a program for a social studies workshop for the following summer.

In all districts, preceding activities had shaped the applications for the projects. The proposals were outgrowths from varying situations within the separate districts. Specific purposes and needs underlay each general statement on the applications.

In studying the purposes of each project and the initiation of the projects, it was further shown that in each case some administrator in the district organization took a leadership role in activating the project.

District A. District A desired to build a corps of teachers skilled in the use of Taba's teaching strategies and social studies units,

thereby effecting a change in teaching the social studies in the district.³ One teacher had had the opportunity to work with Taba and to become familiar with her strategies and materials. Through the district grade level meetings the teacher had been encouraged by the district to help the other fourth grade teachers learn the strategies and to use the Contra Costa County Social Studies units to full advantage. As the teachers worked together, they found that the grade level meetings did not allow sufficient time nor leadership to move as rapidly as they wanted. Since each grade level committee had a principal assigned to it as an "expediter," the teachers requested that he obtain assistance both in time and in additional staff for them to achieve their objectives. The principal, then, took the lead in clearing administrative channels locally and getting the application for consultant services submitted under Title III-B. A plan was drawn up within the district implementing the proposal on an "each one teach one" basis so that in three years the desired teaching processes and materials would be in use throughout the district in grades one through six.

District B. A Social Science Curriculum Committee was part of the organizational structure of District B. The committee felt that the entire area of the social studies needed development including more effective utilization of the equipment and materials which had

³Hilda Taba, San Francisco State College, set forth a teaching-learning process which she termed teaching strategies. She worked with the Contra Costa County Schools in the social studies to refine the strategies which were incorporated in a series of units for the elementary schools of that county.

been acquired through an NDEA Title III-A project. Here, too, as in District A, a principal was assigned to the committee of teachers.

The committee suggested that their needs might best be met through a summer workshop where: (1) new procedures in the use of equipment and materials could be acquired, (2) wider use of social studies units supplied by the district which specified use of these materials could be encouraged, and (3) supporting field trips could be outlined. The teachers wanted expert guidance on how to get at their problems and become aware of the framework, methods and utilization procedures. Such assistance was not available from the district nor from district funds.

To set up the workshops the application for Title III-B funds for planning was submitted. Although the principal in District B did not write the proposal, it was his responsibility as the administrative representative on the committee to submit the idea to the project writer for the district and to follow through with the committee.

District C. The need to bring cohesiveness in scope and sequence to the social sciences concerned District C. There had been some confusion and disagreement within the district and with the high school regarding placement of content. For example, the high school wanted the elementary school to teach the history sequence only to the Civil War in grades five and eight and leave the rest of American history for the high school years. To avoid further argument, the Social Studies Committee made up of a teacher from each building, the grade level chairmen, and one of the district's principals, wanted to develop a scope and sequence complete with unit titles and concepts for each grade in the social studies. The committee worked with the

curriculum director of the district to set up the program and to write the project. Specific concerns which entered into writing the project were: (1) the overlap in content suggested in the Social Studies Framework for the Public Schools of California, especially the sequence in history for grades five, eight and eleven; (2) the use of multiple texts rather than the "one book coverage" idea; and (3) the development of an inquiry approach to social studies to "get at the big ideas and put the facts to use."

District D. In District D a situation similar to that of District B prevailed in that both had purchased maps, globes, and other equipment and felt a need to learn more effective uses for them. District D wanted to combine the use of equipment with updating teachers' knowledge of content as well as of trends in the social sciences. The project application came as a direct result of the recommendation of the district curriculum committee that something be done to plan curriculum for the use of maps, globes, and other materials and equipment which the district had.

District E. A principal in District E was on the History and Geography Writing Advisory Committee, a state-wide committee which had been formed to guide authors in the preparation of four booklets from the subject matter outline titles "History and Geography for the Primary Grades" which had been written by John G. Church, Consultant in Curriculum Development, California State Department of Education. After revising and testing the outline material in grades two and three in several schools in northern and southern California, a more complete statement of content, references, and suggested

teaching procedures was indicated.⁴ District E was to be a pilot district, not only to try out the completed booklets, but also to help in developing supplementary materials and procedures. The application was submitted for a consultant to orient the teachers to the new materials and to prepare them for the pilot study.

Allocated Times

To determine the kinds of temporary systems the districts set up for consultant utilization the duration of the systems as well as the selection of participants were items for consideration.

Only one of the districts was allocated the same amount of time as requested on the applications. The others received less than requested. One district had applications approved for both years of the study.

District A. District A requested, and was allocated, two days in 1966-1967. Two consultants were used, one full day for each on Title III-B funds.

District B. Of the four days requested by District B for 1965-1966, two were allocated. Both were used in full day sessions. Two consultants served the district, one day each.

District C. District C requested six days and received five in 1966-1967. In order for the district to maximize the consultant services half-day sessions were agreed upon. The consultant for

⁴Max Rafferty, "Foreword," Beginning Global Geography, John G. Church, Elizabeth White, and Robert Stephens (Sacramento: California State Department of Education, 1967), p. iii.

this project was in District C ten times for the five day allocation.

These half-days were spread throughout the school year from November into May.

District D. Six days were requested by District D in 1965-1966, but only two were allocated. District D, as in District C, agreed with the consultant to have half-day sessions rather than full days. The consultant was in the district four times in October and November of 1965 on Title III-B funds and one time in December on district funds.

The following year in a similar Title III-B application, four days out of twelve were allocated to the district. The 1966-1967 project was never accomplished although two consultants were contacted to serve the district for it.

District E. Two days were allocated out of the five requested by District E. for the school year 1965-1966. These were used as full day sessions following the close of the school year in June 1966.

Project Participants

All of the districts had some means of selecting the participants for working with the consultants.

District A. All fourth grade teachers were involved in the planning for the project in District A and so were expected to attend the meetings with the consultant. Those teachers who were willing to take the added responsibility for teaching another teacher the skills learned in the project were invited to join a leadership group. The leadership group would receive additional training and would have key responsibility in the ensuing two years as the project enlarged to the other grades. Besides the fourth grade teachers and the leadership

group the entire staff from one of the elementary schools participated in one of the day long sessions with a consultant. The project in District A expanded beyond the two days of consultant time and those who participated with the consultants were expected to continue with the project and to attend all sessions.

The principal on the committee and the chairman of the fourth grade teachers sent a letter of invitation to all selected participants which also stated the purposes of the meetings. Invitations to participate were also extended to the teachers of the private schools operating within the city.

District B. In District B the steering committee for the social science Curriculum Committee was made up of teachers who were considered to have leadership ability and to be outstanding teachers in the subject area. Although the meetings were open to any teachers who were interested, the steering committee made an effort after the first meeting with a consultant to recruit teachers who were especially interested in the committee's plans and who exhibited what the committee considered leadership ability. The committee issued a questionnaire to all elementary teachers to determine such interest. From the responses representatives from each grade and from each subject were invited to participate. A letter of invitation was sent to those selected on the basis of the questionnaire and an announcement was made in the district curriculum newsletter regarding the sessions. The steering committee met with each consultant prior to the open meeting.

District C. District C had an active Social Science Committee made up of a teacher from each building, the grade level chairmen

from the district and one principal. The curriculum director also worked with the committee as he did for all district committees.

The Title III-B project was planned by and for this committee. To be on the Social Science Committee was to go through a selective procedure. Members were recommended by their principals as outstanding teachers with special interest in the social sciences and were then invited to be on the committee by the curriculum director.

For the Title III-B project the committee wished to augment the Social Science Committee with teachers who were interested in social studies, had ability to work with their own building faculties, could train others, would develop materials and attend the meetings. Additional participants, later referred to as the augmented committee, were recommended by their principals and selected by the Social Science Committee. When the selection of participants had been made the curriculum department invited the recommended and appointed teachers to the meetings. These teachers were expected to attend all sessions with the consultant.

District D. The consultant sessions in District D were in two series. One series was for the teachers of kindergarten through grade three and the other was for teachers of grades four to six. The qualification for attendance was to be teaching the appropriate grade level. All teachers were expected to attend the sessions for their own grade levels even though attendance was voluntary. No special selective procedures were used as in the preceding districts.

Nothing was done about District D's project for the second year of the study. The project was never activated by the district.

District E. The consultant served District E on June 20 and 21, 1966. School was closed. Although the meetings had been planned for the second and third grade teachers of the district no teachers were present. Materials prepared by the consultant were for the teachers of these grades.

Consultants Serving the Projects

Although consultants for the NDEA Title III-B projects were employed by the State Department of Education as part of the supervisory and related services of the State, each educational agency with a funded project selected and contacted the consultant who could best serve the local needs and arranged for the kind of services desired.

Consultants were shown earlier in Chapter III as experts in their fields who were brought into the districts as resource persons to facilitate the innovation and change. Most consultants called upon by school districts were also identified as coming from colleges or universities.

Consultant I. Consultant number one (I) who served District A, was a fourth grade classroom teacher in a Bay Area school district. She had worked with Taba in the development of the Contra Costa Social Studies Units. During the school year 1967-1968, she was on leave from her district to work for the Curriculum Research Laboratory at San Francisco State College as a Curriculum Specialist. Her primary responsibility as Curriculum Specialist was to write units utilizing the strategies developed by Taba. Because of her long association with the development of the units and her knowledge of the underlying strategies, the staff at the Curriculum Laboratory had

recommended her to the principal who worked with District A's fourth grade teachers as being able to do what the teachers wanted.

She was the youngest of the consultants interviewed. Born in 1940, she received her bachelor's degree from the University of the Pacific in 1961 where she had been an education major. Her special field outside of education was social science.

Consultant I was teaching in Contra Costa County at the time Taba was looking for teachers to try the strategies and develop sequential experiences for the social studies units. Consultant I's district recommended her for a special summer workshop directed by Taba and for the activities which would follow during the school year. Her interest and participation in Taba's cooperative project as well as in the subsequent activities of the Curriculum Research Laboratory had been continuous through 1967-1968 since her participation in the first summer workshop.

Consultant II. Consultant number two (II) also served District A. The principal who was the administrative representative for the fourth grade teachers met her when the university in District A's community had her conduct a class in her special field of self enhancing education on the campus there.

Self Enhancing Education is concerned with the building of self esteem since the ability to feel strong and worthy and adequate is a powerful motivating force as a person approaches each learning opportunity. Low self esteem by all available evidence is a powerful deterrent to the realization of complete personal potential.⁵

⁵Norma Randolph, "Self Enhancing Education What Is It?" SEE, 1:1, October 1966.

The principal recommended Consultant II to the teachers as one whose ideas would complement the teaching strategies they were learning. The teachers agreed and he arranged for her to be one consultant on the project.

Consultant II was the Director of an Elementary and Secondary Education Act Title III Project for a union elementary school district in a metropolitan area. Through the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) project, she had furthered the development of communication skills and the refinement of self enhancing education teaching techniques. She had been the author and coordinator of the guidance program in the same union elementary district from 1957 until becoming the ESEA project director for his district. While in the guidance position she had also organized the district's program for educationally handicapped minors. Self enhancing education grew out of the total guidance program.

Consultant II, born in 1905, began her professional career after her children were grown. She received her bachelor's degree from Chico State College in 1957 and her M. A. in guidance from Stanford in 1960. Since 1956 she had been a trainer in sensitivity training at the National Training Laboratory at Arrowhead. She held California life credentials for teaching, supervision, and pupil personnel. She was also certified by the University of California in Social Services.

Her textbook, Self Enhancing Education, was used as a basic text for college classes. She had been in demand for other consultant services and for classes for college credit. Articles which she had

written had appeared in the California Teachers Association magazine, The CTA Journal, and in the publication on self enhancing education from the PACE (Projects to Advance Creativity in Education) Center in San Jose, California, SEE (Self Enhancing Education).

Consultant III. When the Social Science Curriculum Committee in District B wanted someone who knew the geography and geology of the local area to assist them with their social studies curriculum and with planning field trips to implement the geography program, Consultant number three (III) was recommended by the teachers on the committee who had had classes from him at Sacramento State College. They felt that he would be able to give them the leadership they needed. After recommending him to the steering committee, the teachers were authorized to contact him for the Title III-B project.

Consultant III was an Associate Professor of Physical Science at Sacramento State College. His major field was geology. Born in 1916, he received his bachelor's degree in 1947 and his Master of Science in 1948 from the University of Illinois. He had two years of college work beyond the master's degree from the University of Washington. His experience background included three years as a lecturer in geology at Texas Tech, a Junior Research Oceanographer at the University of Washington, a field geologist with the U.S. Army Engineers, and three years as an instructor in geology at Idaho State College. His writings had been mainly published laboratory manuals directly related to his immediate teaching assignment.

He had been called frequently by teachers who had been in his classes for consultant work in their districts.

Consultant IV. Because the committee in District B also wanted a media specialist to assist in planning for utilization of materials for the summer workshop, the administrative representative on the Social Science Curriculum Committee asked the State Department of Education for recommendations. Consultant number four (IV), who was Director of Audio-Visual Services for a county office, was highly recommended. The administrator followed the recommendation, called Consultant IV, and secured his services for the project.

Sacramento State College was where Consultant IV received both his bachelor's degree, 1947, and his master's in 1960. His major subjects in college were science and the social sciences. However, at the junior college level, he had specialized in graphics. He later worked professionally in this field and his master's thesis concerned audio-visual services. For the years immediately preceding his position as Director of Audio-Visual Services he was an elementary teacher. His long list of consultancies to other districts in California attested to the wide demand for his services as a media specialist. He had been active and had held offices in the regional and state associations for audio-visual instruction.

Consultant V. The Curriculum Director of District C had known Consultant number five (V) when both were working for their doctoral degrees at Stanford. When Consultant V's name was suggested as a possible consultant for the District C project, the Curriculum Director contacted him for Title III-B services.

Consultant V received his Bachelor of Education degree from the University of Alberta where his majors were mathematics and science. In 1949, he received his Master of Education degree from Oregon University. His Doctor of Education degree was granted from Stanford University in 1962. His doctoral study concerned maps and map skills in the elementary school and was later published in book form.

In the school year 1967-1968 he held the position of Professor of Education at the California State College at Hayward. He had taught elementary school and had been a director of curricular services for a county office prior to teaching at Hayward State. At the time of this study he was working with a publisher to produce some special illustrative materials for teaching in the social studies.

Consultant VI. Teachers on the Social Studies Committee in District D who had had Consultant number six (VI) as an instructor for either geography or history at Diablo Valley College, a junior college, recommended him for the consultant on their 1965-1966 project. He was also recommended to the district by personnel from the Contra Costa County Office.

Consultant VI was born in 1903, received his B.A. from Pasadena College in 1925 and continued with graduate work at both the University of Southern California and the University of California at Berkeley, although he held no graduate degrees. History was his special field of study in college but he had a special interest in geography which he had pursued throughout the years. He had taught in high school and junior college and had been an administrator for

elementary and senior high schools. Teaching was his preference. He had also worked with other districts as a consultant in geography and history. In the summer of 1966 he was one of the instructors in a workshop under the direction of Hilda Taba and her associates at San Francisco State College for teachers of the disadvantaged. He credited the opportunity to teach in the workshop to his service in District D.

Consultant VII. When District D had another proposal application funded for 1966-1967, Consultant V was requested to be one of two consultants to serve the district. The other consultant requested, Consultant number seven (VII), was also a professor at the California State College at Hayward. He was an Associate Professor of Education and Coordinator of Field Experiences.

Consultant VII was born in 1931, received his B. A. at the University of California at Santa Barbara, his M. A. in 1961 at San Diego State College and his Ed. D from the University of California at Berkeley in 1964. His special subject fields were social science, English, and music, all of which he had taught at the junior and senior high school levels in San Diego. His dissertation was An Investigation of the Case Method of Instruction in Selected Eighth Grade Civics Classes.

Consultant VIII. Consultant number eight (VIII) had been the geographer on a state committee preparing materials for booklets on geography and history for the second and third grades. These were the materials which District E had planned to use in the projected pilot study. The principal from the district who was also on the state committee secured Consultant VIII's services for the Title III-B project.

Consultant VIII, at the time of the project, was an instructor in geography at Los Angeles Valley College, a junior college, and in 1967 moved to the University of California at Riverside where he was Associate Professor of Geography.

In 1938, he received his B. A. in geography from the University of California at Los Angeles. His graduate degrees included an M. A. earned in 1946 and a Ph. D. awarded in 1960 which were both in geography from the University of California at Los Angeles. Between receiving his bachelor's degree and earning his doctorate he taught general science and world geography in the public schools at the junior high school level. In 1963 he was Consultant in Earth Science for the California State Department of Education under an NDEA grant.

Accomplishment of the Projects

As noted previously, each district had some staff member from the administrative level who was responsible for facilitating the projects. The principal or curriculum director who had this responsibility was also responsible for making arrangements so the projects would move smoothly. Such arrangements included contacting the consultants; setting dates, times and places for meetings within the district; notifying the committee members and other participants of the arrangements. In other words, the status leader was responsible for setting up the temporary system for utilization of consultant services. The sessions were planned to use varying modes of diffusion: show; tell; help; involve; and train.

District A. District A found it difficult to view the two allocated Title III-B days as separate entities from the remainder of the

project. The two NDEA funded days were part of a total program and were thus indistinguishable from any other part of it. One of the days when a consultant was in the district, the teachers were released from classes for the full day to work with the consultant. The second day was a minimum teaching day in which the session with the consultant began at 2:30 in the afternoon and ended at 9:00 in the evening. The consultant days which the district added to the project at their expense followed the minimum school day pattern.

Consultant number one (I) made a presentation of Taba's strategies, using transparencies and charts and other illustrative materials from her own classroom. Following her presentation was informal discussion. She began the discussion with an open-ended question to get the teachers involved in the dialogue.

Consultant number two (II) in District A had the teachers role play situations following a brief presentation of theory. She chose activities to involve the teacher participants. As she put it, she wanted to "use activities to involve the crowd as a group." She explained by saying that a crowd has no feeling for each other nor a sense of unity: each person in a crowd has a feeling only for himself. Before progress could be made with the ideas she wished to present a group feeling was necessary. The introductory activity, therefore, was one which not only encouraged the participation of each one present but also required interaction through verbal communication. This was followed by role playing of defined situations.

Some changes were made as the project developed in District A. Communications skills were added to the teaching strategies as part of

the project. Participation was enlarged to include not only fourth grade teachers but also the faculty of one of the district's elementary schools.

Communication skills and self enhancing education were added to Taba's strategies. The teachers wanted more time with the consultants, so both Consultant number one (I) and Consultant number two (II) were contracted to return to the district for three more sessions each at the district's expense. To complete the project, a third consultant was brought in for one day. Another change, perhaps it is more aptly called an unexpected happening, was the accelerated pace of the project. Other elementary teachers wanted to be included in the training and to learn to use the materials. There was increased demand for the social studies materials which had been unforeseen by the district.

District B. For District B, the NDEA Title III-B consultant days were for planning a summer workshop. This district, too, had difficulty drawing a hard and fast line between the one day sessions with the consultants and the total plan which was consummated in the summer workshops. Consultant number four (IV) continued to be actively involved after service for Title III-B. He continued on his own time, to help the district get ready for the summer workshops and also participated in the media workshop. For the one day of NDEA involvement he gave the district three additional days of service.

The goals of the project changed during the consultant's sessions. Originally, one workshop was wanted but as the committee worked with the consultants it appeared more feasible to separate the development of social studies units and supporting activities from the procedures in use of equipment and materials. Two summer workshops,

therefore, were planned and implemented: one which concentrated on developing a sequence for units in the social studies and completing a model unit for the second grade as well as detailing field trips to explore the geography of the area; the second was devoted to developing skill in the use of various media and making illustrative materials for use in the social sciences for all grades. Following the decision to have two workshops, publicity regarding the two workshops was distributed throughout the district. As a result, more teachers asked to be included in the workshops, including the high school teachers. What had started out as an elementary grade project expanded and became a kindergarten through twelfth grade effort.

For the sessions with the consultants, the steering committee was released for a half-day to meet with the consultants and the remainder of the participants were released from their classes an hour early so that the meetings could begin at 2:30. The sessions continued until 4:30 and 5:00 o'clock.

Consultant number three (III) who was employed by District B demonstrated the use of maps with students, then with the steering committee, acted as a resource person in informal discussion helping formulate guidelines for planning and utilizing field experiences. He used maps of the immediate area for reference. Although the district wanted him to be a part of the summer workshop in social sciences, he had a prior commitment which kept him from further participation.

Consultant number four (IV) showed processes for making transparencies and helped train the teachers who were to be the instructors in the summer workshop. He also arranged for additional

resource people to help in the district's workshops and was present at the summer media workshop.

District C. District C employed Consultant number five (V) for half-days instead of full days. The ten sessions were all held after school from 3:30 to 5:30 so that no released time nor minimum teaching days were necessary. The project proceeded throughout the year according to the plan of the project proposal. The consultant met with the administrators for one of the half-day sessions to give an overview of the social science program. The other sessions were held later with the teachers. He demonstrated innovative techniques with the teachers to show how they could use inquiry processes and how they could plan for a week's lessons using an inquiry approach. By inquiry approach Consultant number five (V) meant an inductive approach based largely upon Taba's strategies. He also worked with the teachers on problem analysis.

District D. District D also employed its consultant, Consultant number six (VI), for half-days for the project in 1965-1966. The sessions with him were after school from 3:45 to 5:45. The consultant did some demonstration teaching both with children and with the teachers. The sessions, however, could more properly be called workshop sessions because the consultant involved the participant teachers in the processes he was demonstrating. Usually he gave a short presentation and then opened the discussion. He would show an illustration of familiar landscape and then point out some of the features usually overlooked in order to develop close observation and deeper understanding. He used open-ended questions to provoke discussion and sought to

bring the teacher participants inductively to an understanding of the underlying geographic concepts. In his words, he used an "inspirational approach to teaching geography. "

In District D, as in others, there was a demand for more of the consultant's services. So the district had him return for one additional session at district expense making a total of five meetings.

The project generated sufficient interest so that another application for Title III-B funds for a consultant in the social sciences was submitted and approved for 1966-1967. Consultant number seven (VII) was invited to the district for a planning session in the late spring of 1966. The project was never activated. Except for the reduction in allocated days from the number requested, District D really did not know why the project was not activated. The only reason which was offered was that school district unification with the extensive administrative changes had created much confusion within the district. The difference between days requested and days allocated was hypothesized as a possible factor affecting non-activation.

District E. District E had project changes due to unforeseen circumstances. The application had been submitted on the supposition that history and geography vignettes from the State Department of Education would be completed and available during the school year 1965-1966. The materials, however, were not distributed to schools until November 1967. Since there were no materials in the school year 1965-1966 to show the teachers, but hope was strong that they would be available momentarily, the district had kept the project alive until the school year had ended. By then the teachers had gone, but the

consultant was requested to serve the school district anyway to survey the library materials as well as the maps and other equipment for use with the booklets when they were ready. The consultant worked alone, assessing the available materials and equipment, and wrote detailed instructions for use. He reviewed the concepts which had been written into the vignettes in the booklets and related the local district materials to their use.

Channels of Communication

Because each of the projects investigated was a part of a larger curriculum program plan for each district, the channels of communication herein described were in use throughout the total program. As shown in Chapter III, channels of communication and feedback are vital in a program that has change as an ultimate goal.

District A. The principal who was appointed to the fourth grade level committee considered himself the "expediter" for the committee. As the social studies committee evolved from the fourth grade meetings he became the administrator on that committee as well. For the first meetings with the consultants he and the grade level chairman sent letters to all those who were expected to attend. Prior to each of the succeeding meetings he sent the participants a reminder of the time and place of the meeting plus an agenda of the session. Between the times when the consultants met with the fourth grade teachers, the teachers had many other meetings relative to the project. Open discussion prevailed at the grade level meetings from which questions posing difficulties were forwarded to the consultant to aid in structuring

the next session. From these questions, as well as from those arising in discussion with the consultant, the principal and the consultant working together made the agenda for the next session. The openness of discussion and communication between teachers and consultants provided the necessary feedback to structure the project to meet the district's needs.

District B. Members of the steering committee of the Social Science Curriculum Committee in District B were termed "high communicators" by the administrative representative on the committee. Not only were they enthusiastic about the project, but they were also able to verbalize and to encourage further communication about the project among their colleagues within their own school buildings.

The committee issued a questionnaire which was sent to all teachers to determine the amount of interest and to solicit participants with strengths in particular areas. The administrator wrote letters to those selected who were to participate as leaders. The meetings were also given publicity in the district's curriculum newsletter inviting teachers and administrators to attend. The administrators' meeting in the district also announced consultant sessions. Minutes of the committee meetings were distributed to the members of the Social Science Curriculum Committee and to the administrators.

Participants were encouraged to formulate guidelines for the progress of the project through discussions at the end of each session when the question "Where do we go from here?" was posed. The original list of concerns from which the project finally grew came from a questionnaire which the committee formulated and presented at the fall teacher orientation meeting.

District C. The Curriculum Director for District C sent a letter to each member of the Social Science Curriculum Committee telling the member that he had been recommended to serve on the committee. The letter also contained the date and place for the first meeting plus a resume of the committee accomplishments, the committee plans for the current year, and the agenda for the next meeting. Prior to each meeting he sent a memorandum to the members of the Social Science Curriculum Committee reminding them of the date, time, place, and included the agenda for the meeting. At the close of the school year, he again wrote the committee members commending them for their contributions, summarizing the year's activities and projecting the coming year's plans.

At all times during the project the curriculum director was available to the participants and through him the consultant was kept informed of questions and problems that arose pertinent to the project. The steering committee met between sessions. Reports of progress were made at the principals' meetings. New materials that were either purchased or developed during the project were sent to teachers for trial and evaluation. Notices of new materials and equipment were circulated so that the teachers could ask to use them. Following each session with the consultant, the consultant and the curriculum director talked informally with the teachers listening to their comments and questions. Prior to each session, the consultant and the curriculum director met to discuss any additional feedback which had come into the district office between sessions from the teacher questions or from the principals' meetings. From these meetings, adjustments were made in

the agenda or were carried to the next session.

District D. The Director of Elementary Education in District D had the responsibility for keeping the official lines of communication for the project open. He circulated memorandums to all principals and teachers of kindergarten through grade eight informing them of the Geography In-Service Meetings. In these memorandums he stated the purpose of the meeting, who was to attend and an agenda for the session. Some of the meetings were for teachers of kindergarten through grade three, others for those teaching grades four through six, and one meeting was for the teachers of the seventh and eighth grades. The school bulletin also printed articles about the meetings. Questionnaires were used at each session to guide the planning for the next meeting. The director forwarded the information from the questionnaires to the consultant. The director also acted as liaison between the teachers and the consultant. The consultant allowed time at the close of each session for questions and suggestions which were used in planning succeeding sessions. During the project the agendas for the faculty meetings in the separate school buildings included discussion of the project. Feedback from the faculty meetings was provided through the principals to the central office.

The Title III-B project for 1966-1967 was planned with Consultant number seven (VII) in the spring of 1966. During the school year, however, the project was never activated. Administrative changes had been made in the central office. The Assistant Superintendent in charge of instruction hypothesized that the allocation of days represented a severe cut in days requested. The committee

had not progressed in their own work to the extent expected and felt that the days allowed were too few to use the consultant as previously planned. In addition, personnel changes had occurred in the central office.

District E. During this project the consultant worked alone. No communication nor feedback channels were established as no participants were involved.

Outcomes and Follow-up

Since change occurs in stages, as shown in Chapter III, the projects studied represent only the early or beginning phases of the change process. Adoption of the innovation with diffusion throughout the district would be considered the culmination of a change process. However, rejection is just as likely to result as adoption. It was deemed necessary, therefore, to determine if the NDEA Title III-B projects were to be followed in any way by further effort to promote or effect lasting, beneficial change.

In the time since the projects studied were accomplished the districts had varied in the ways the projects had been followed. Where the NDEA Title III-B project represented a part of a larger program some of the next steps the districts took were of necessity included in the discussion on Accomplishment of the Projects.

District A. The three year plan which District A had projected at the beginning of the program was continued at an accelerated pace. More teachers were included in the basic curriculum development program and the grade level distinctions less rigidly held. Consultant number two (II) returned to the district in the school year 1967-1968 to

work with other teachers in communication skills and self enhancing education. A summer workshop in leadership training for 1968 was planned. Leadership in the workshop was to be from the committee members who had been in the training sessions with the consultants.

As a result of the project and its unexpected acceleration, the principal who coordinated it for the fourth grade teachers, was given the responsibility for developing the curriculum in the social sciences for the elementary grades in the district. The teacher who had the background in the teaching strategies had become an accepted leader within the district taking a major role in the workshop mentioned above and in working with other teachers. She had also been called upon to serve as an NDEA Title III-B consultant in the social sciences in other districts.

An NDEA Title III-B proposal for social science for 1967-1968 was submitted at the application time in the spring of 1967, but was disapproved for funds. In June 1968, however, when unused NDEA Title III-B funds were available, District A's project was funded for one-half day. The district submitted two applications for elementary projects for the school year 1968-1969: one for economics and one for geography. Both projects requested three days consultant time. Project approval was unknown at the time of this writing.

District B. The summer workshops which District B had planned with the consultants' help were accomplished. Both had good attendance and were judged successful by the district. Not only did the consultants help the district in planning the summer workshops, but the project had some long range effects. The district personnel

came in contact with many other resource people which led to other workshops. The high school teachers became interested in the ensuing summer workshops and began working on a social science curriculum for the secondary schools. A course of study for kindergarten through grade twelve was in the long range planning for completion in 1969.

New social studies units which were one of the objectives for the summer workshop were in use in the school year 1967-1968 through the eighth grade. New materials, both commercial and teacher made, were available and in use in the same year.

Because of his work with the district during the project and its follow-up workshop, Consultant number four (IV) had been asked to return to the district for another workshop in the school year 1968-1969.

In 1967-1968 the district submitted three projects for consultant services in elementary social sciences which were all disapproved. Again in 1968-1969 three proposals were submitted. Approval of projects was not known at this writing.

District C. According to the curriculum director in District C, "the NDEA approach encourages schools to do that which they might not ordinarily do." The project in District C proceeded according to the proposal plan and accomplished the stated goals and encouraged new procedures and future goals within the district.

At the conclusion of the 1966-1967 project, the district had a new social science sequence planned for grades one through six which included not only content sequence but also unit titles, tentative generalizations for the units, and a list of instructional aids to implement the new program. An NDEA Title III-A project to provide the necessary

instructional aids for the new program was written and approved for the following year. Educational field trips to implement the new program were outlined and recommended. Plans were made to continue the work a second year to develop resource teaching guides complete with kits containing the necessary supplementary teaching materials for the guides.

Other results came from the 1966-1967 project. According to the evaluation written by the Assistant Superintendent in charge of instruction the Social Science Curriculum Committee had learned to use improved teaching techniques oriented to the problem solving approach. The teachers who had been working with the consultant tried different teaching procedures including team teaching. A humanities course for grades seven and eight was developed and tried. A pilot program in economics at grades one and two was also begun.

Consultant number five (V) had been asked to continue work in District C in 1968-1969 at district expense. The district personnel had seen what could be accomplished with some outside help through the encouragement of NDEA funds and wanted to maintain the impetus given to the social studies curriculum by the NDEA projects.

District D. The 1965-1966 project of District D was followed by another project funded for 1966-1967. However, no written materials or records were available from the first project, and the second project was never carried out. No record was available in the Bureau of NDEA as to the outcomes of the first project since no evaluations were sent to the State from the district.

District E. The materials which Consultant number eight

(VIII) prepared during the summer of 1966 for the teachers to use did not reach the hands of the teachers. The long awaited Beginning Global Geography and American Heritage were sent to the teachers in late fall 1967. The curriculum director, who was serving his first year in the district, sent to the teachers (1) the booklets, (2) a memorandum stating that the booklets were to be used, and (3) a letter from the State Department suggesting in a brief paragraph how the booklets might be used. The teachers who used the materials told the interviewer that they did not have Consultant VIII's instructions for use of the booklets nor the cross reference list he had compiled, neither had they seen any of his work. The teachers were working very much on their own with the materials in 1967-1968.

Except for the superintendent, Consultant VIII had no communication regarding the social sciences with any of the teachers or other administrators. One third grade teacher was introduced to him and one principal recalled seeing the consultant in the superintendent's office.

Organization for Curriculum Development

The organization of a school district and the leadership roles in that system were seen in Chapter III as influences that can either facilitate or block change. Therefore, a study such as this concerned with a change in curriculum must look at those aspects of the districts which reveal the organization and leadership patterns.

The administrative organizations within the districts studied exhibited similarities as well as differences. All had some recognized channels for curriculum operations within the administrative structure even though they differed in organization.

District A. In addition to the building principals, District A, as shown in Figure 3, had a central office staff of three: a superintendent, an assistant superintendent and an elementary coordinator. The superintendent was the administrative officer immediately responsible to the school board. The assistant superintendent was in charge of the district's business services. The elementary coordinator was responsible for coordination of the subject matter specialists such as music and speech, administration of a small primary school and other special assignments from the superintendent. He was not responsible for the elementary curriculum.

The district was decentralized in that each elementary principal was assigned to work with all the teachers in the district at one grade level from kindergarten through grade six. If the teachers in that grade were interested in a curriculum problem, then the principal became involved in curriculum. The principal, however, was more responsible for the curriculum in his own building than he was for curriculum development at the grade level which he served as a committee member.

District A had a Central Curriculum Committee composed of all the district administrators, including the superintendent, two board members, one teacher from each building, and lay representatives. The curriculum committee met monthly in the evening. The committee identified the major curriculum areas for study, divided into small groups to make the study, then brought recommendations to the committee. After deliberation, the committee made further recommendations to the board for action.

FIGURE 3

ORGANIZATION CHART FOR DISTRICT A SHOWING THE ADMINISTRATIVE LINE OF AUTHORITY
AND THE STAFF STRUCTURE WITH THE FUNCTIONAL COMMITTEES FOR
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

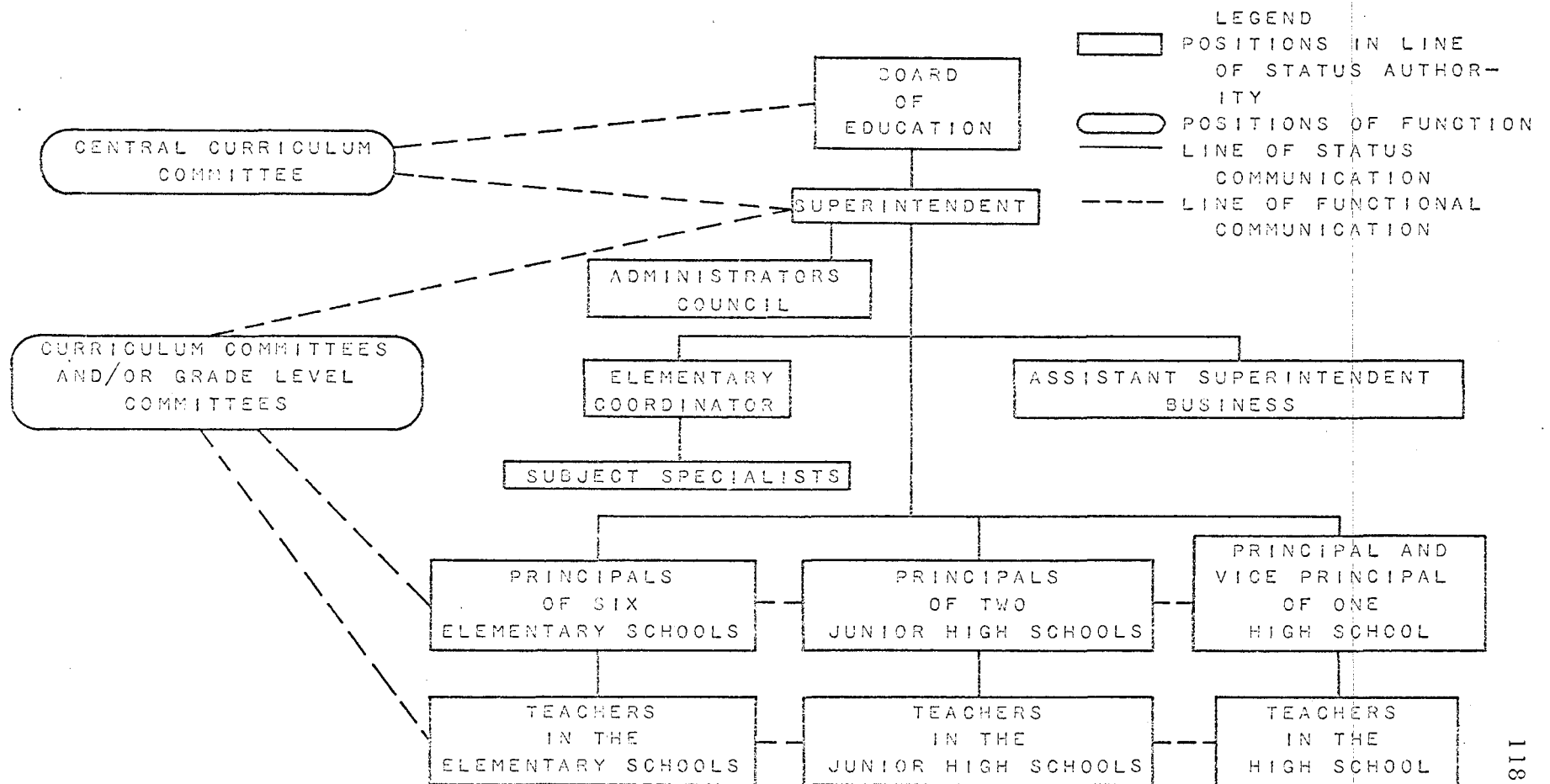


Figure 3 shows the committee organization within the district through which curriculum development was accomplished. The Central Curriculum Committee described above was, in reality, responsible for the curriculum recommendations and implementation for the district. The recommendations of this committee went directly to the board for action. The committee was also the body through which the action of the board could be disseminated. Since the Central Curriculum Committee had teacher representatives from each school as well as all of the administrators who were also assigned to work on curriculum or grade level committees, the board approved decisions moved easily through the Central Curriculum Committee to the separate schools and to the grade level committees for implementation.

The organization of committees also allowed curriculum development to originate at the teacher level and move from a teacher's suggestion in the curriculum or grade level meeting upward through the administrator to the Central Curriculum Committee for study and action.

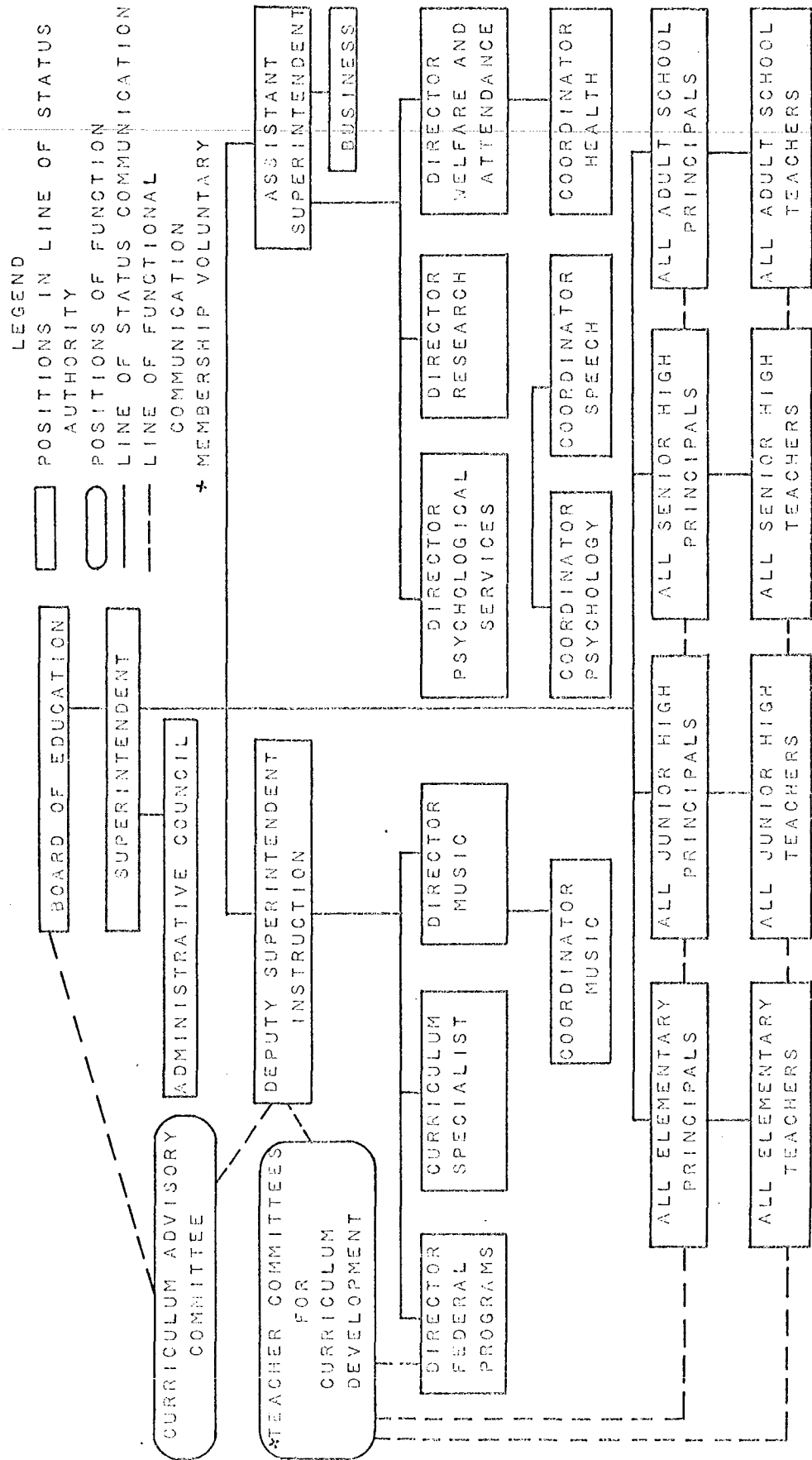
Curriculum plans were projected for three years in the district.

District B. District B had a central office staff of fourteen: a superintendent; an assistant superintendent; a deputy superintendent in charge of instruction; a business manager; a curriculum specialist, a position created after the Title III-B project was completed; a director for Federal programs; and coordinators and/or directors for special subject areas. These positions and the district organization are shown on Figure 4.

The Deputy Superintendent in Charge of Instruction held the

FIGURE 4

ORGANIZATION CHART FOR DISTRICT B SHOWING THE ADMINISTRATIVE LINE OF AUTHORITY AND THE STAFF STRUCTURE WITH THE FUNCTIONAL COMMITTEES FOR CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT



responsibility for curriculum and was accountable to the superintendent. He had a doctoral degree, was an experienced teacher and had been an elementary and high school administrator. He had graduated from the local high school and all of his professional education experience had been in District B. His responsibilities included supervision of the schools relative to curriculum, coordination of administrative functions, in-service and organization of curriculum committees.

The committee organization through which curriculum development was fostered in District B is shown in Figure 4. The Deputy Superintendent was the functional leader of the curriculum committees. The Curriculum Advisory Committee, made up of teachers, administrators, and the curriculum specialist, had advisory responsibility to the Deputy Superintendent and the board. No board members, however, served on the committee. The Deputy Superintendent also set up the committees of teachers and administrators for subject matter study and curriculum development for all grade levels.

The Social Science Curriculum Committee was one of the active curriculum committees at work in the district. Membership was voluntary. A district elementary school principal worked with the committee to facilitate the work of the committee. At the beginning of the project included in this study the committee was made up of elementary personnel only, but as interest in the project expanded, high school teachers joined in the work of the committee.

District C. The central staff in District C, an elementary school district, numbered fifteen. This number included the superintendent, assistant superintendent in charge of instruction, the associate

superintendent in charge of business, an administrative assistant for child welfare and attendance, a curriculum director, coordinators and/or directors for a Title I project, for music, for physical education, for guidance and special services, and for instructional materials. Two curriculum consultants and three psychologists completed the staff. Figure 5 shows these positions and the organization in the district.

The Curriculum Director, as his title implies, was responsible for the curriculum for grades kindergarten through grade eight. He was accountable to the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction who was in turn accountable to the superintendent. The Curriculum Director had his Ed. D. from Stanford University and his other degrees from the University of Oregon. Before beginning in District C he had been a superintendent and principal in Oregon for seventeen years. His duties in the district besides the responsibility for the kindergarten through eighth grade curriculum included directing the summer session, coordinating instructional materials, supervision of the subject area consultants, directing the programs for the gifted and programs for reading improvement.

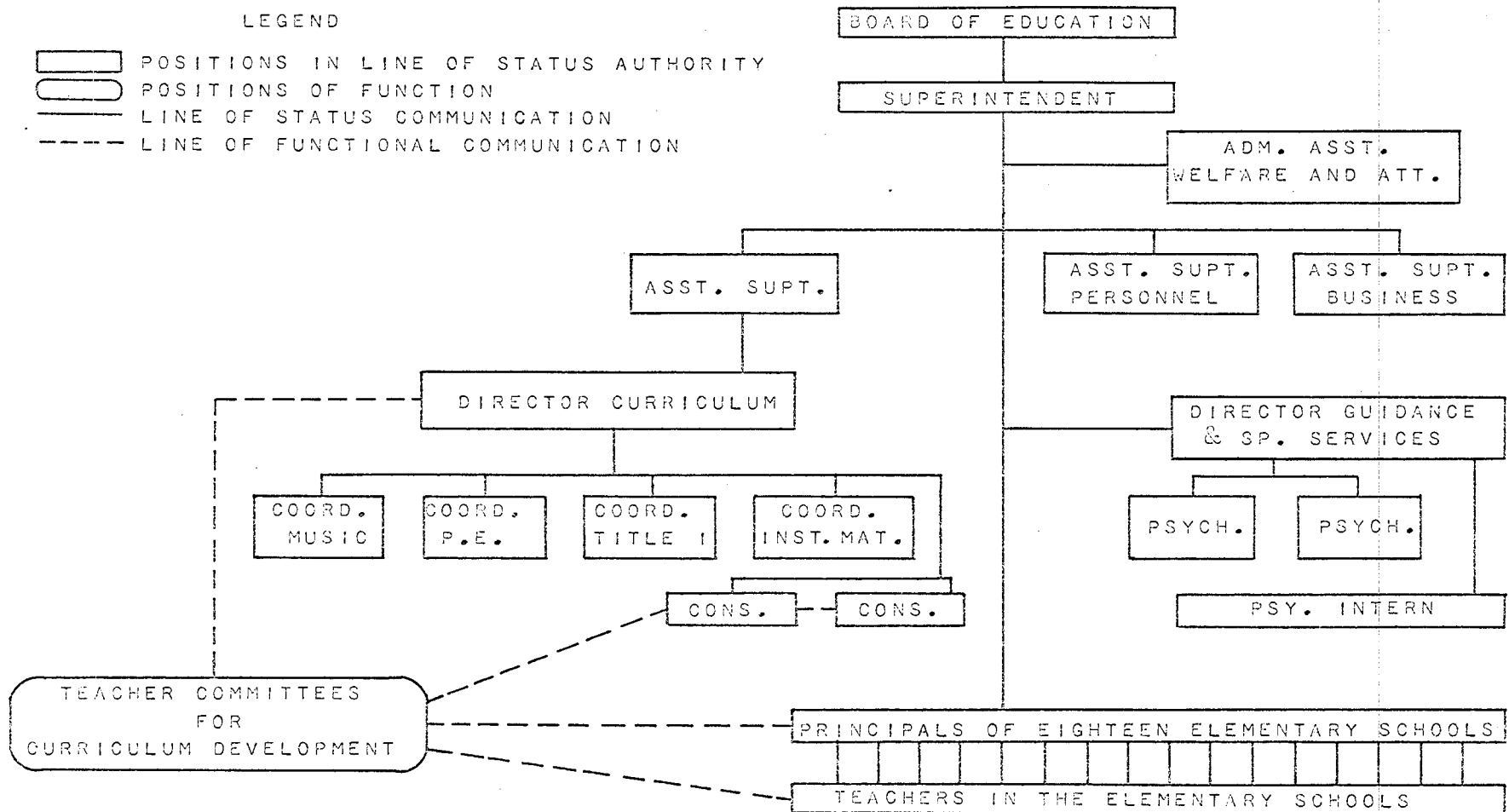
Subject area committees had been an active part of the curriculum development organization. The Social Science Curriculum Committee was an example of the way in which those committees were formed and operated. The committee was made up of the grade level chairmen, a teacher from each school and one principal. The Curriculum Director in the early fall asked each principal to recommend a teacher from his faculty to serve on the committee. The recommended teacher was to be a strong teacher with a special interest in the social

FIGURE 5

ORGANIZATION CHART FOR DISTRICT C SHOWING THE ADMINISTRATIVE LINE OF AUTHORITY
AND THE STAFF STRUCTURE WITH THE FUNCTIONAL COMMITTEES FOR
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

LEGEND

- POSITIONS IN LINE OF STATUS AUTHORITY
- POSITIONS OF FUNCTION
- LINE OF STATUS COMMUNICATION
- - - LINE OF FUNCTIONAL COMMUNICATION



sciences. The letter also asked the principals to express their own interest in being appointed to the committee. The Curriculum Director was responsible for the formation and activation of such committees. The general consultants assisted him in the functions of the subject matter committees. The relationship of these committees to the line and staff organization is shown in Figure 5.

In the spring of 1968, the district was developing a curriculum committee of teachers and administrators to give direction and priorities to the continued development of the elementary curriculum and to the needed in-service activities to implement the curriculum.

District D. In the school year 1967-1968, the administrative structure of District D was still undergoing change that had begun with unification on July 1, 1965. One staff member was added in May 1968 bringing the total central staff to nine, and the administrative functions of other staff members had undergone change. The positions at the beginning of the school year 1967-1968 were: superintendent; assistant superintendent in charge of instruction; directors for certificated personnel, pupil personnel and special services including compensatory education, food services, business services; coordinators for music and instructional materials; and a psychologist.

The latest addition to the staff was a person for elementary curriculum. This relieved the assistant superintendent in charge of instruction of the elementary program, but he retained the secondary curriculum responsibilities and was given responsibility for the coordination of the district administrators to replace the loss of elementary curriculum. Reorganization and shifts in responsibility had been

characteristic of District D since unification on July 1, 1965, the beginning of the school year for the first Title III-B project. New administrative personnel were hired at that time. In March 1966, more administrative changes were made. The high school principal was made assistant superintendent in charge of instruction at that time, the position he still held in 1968. Each year saw organizational changes. The administrative unit grew and the functions of each central staff position shifted. The central office moved into new quarters in the spring of 1968. During the three years an unsettled feeling prevailed. The assistant superintendent expressed it this way, "Unification and reorganization have created confusion in our district."

In order to assist the investigator in getting an accurate account of the Title III-B project, the assistant superintendent made two telephone calls for verification of statements regarding the project. This was necessary as he was unacquainted with the project because at the time it was being accomplished he was a secondary administrator. One of the calls was to the Director of Business Services who had been an elementary principal at the time of the project, another call was to the Coordinator of Instructional Materials who had been the Director of Elementary Education at the time of the project.

The curriculum organization in the district was in an amorphous state. The superintendent had begun organization along the lines of a systems approach during the school year 1966-1967. The curriculum structure of commissions and cabinet in the spring of 1968 were still in the stages of organizing and defining responsibilities

and functions. The Elementary Curriculum Commission had a representative from every school and grade level plus two administrators. The Secondary Curriculum Commission had subject area representatives, a counselor, librarian, a seventh and eighth grade administrator, and a high school administrator. The Superintendent's Cabinet was an advisory body to the superintendent as well as a means of communication with and between the two commissions. On the Cabinet were representatives from each commission and from the central office. Two people held curriculum responsibility, one for elementary grades and one for secondary grades. The elementary curriculum person, however, had been added as late as May 1968.

Subject area committees, such as the Social Studies Committee, had little part in the organizational structure in 1967-1968 for curriculum development.

Because of the numerous and frequent changes in the administrative organization where status and function roles were continually shifted and redefined from the first application for NDEA Title III-B funds until the time of the study, a chart showing the organization could not be made. Reorganization was begun, due to unification, before the beginning of the school year of the first project. Further changes were made prior to the second project for 1966-1967 as well as during that year. Changes continued through the year of this study, 1967-1968. With all of the administrative changes, curriculum development became a secondary consideration until the district administrative structure could be completed following the unification.

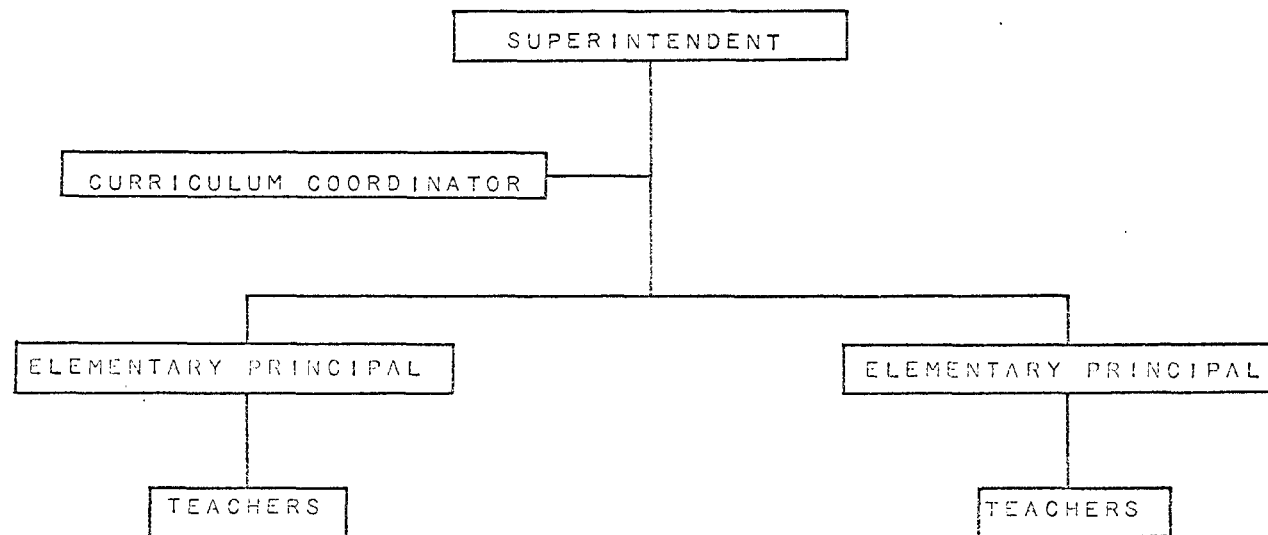
District E. The entire administrative staff for District E at the time of the project was a superintendent and two principals. Later a curriculum director was added to the staff on a part-time basis. The superintendent retained administrative control. The district organization is shown on Figure 6.

Since the Title III-B application the district administrative staff had had several changes in personnel. One of the principals who was in the district when the application was approved moved in December 1965 before the project was activated. His replacement who also planned to leave the district at the end of the 1967-1968 school year, knew nothing about the project, although one of the teachers in his building was currently using the new materials. The curriculum director who had been an elementary principal and a federal project writer before going to District E, planned to terminate his work in the district after one year. The superintendent who had submitted the Title III-B application had moved to another school during the 1967-1968 school year. The new superintendent took the position near the end of the school year. This meant that at the start of the school year 1968-1969 three out of four of the administrative staff would be new to the district. The continuing administrator was the principal who had worked with the State Committee in preparing the geography and history materials for the second and third grades.

Tension was evident in the district. The former superintendent who had submitted the 1965-1966 project was a personal friend of the State Superintendent of Instruction and of the NDEA consultant who served the district. This friendship and personal relationship was

FIGURE 6

ADMINISTRATIVE ORGANIZATION OF DISTRICT E SHOWING THE LINE OF
AUTHORITY AND THE LACK OF STAFF STRUCTURE FOR FACILITATING
CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT



made clear in statements to the investigator first by the curriculum director, secondly by the senior principal, then by the departing principal and lastly by the second and third grade teachers. The feeling conveyed by the statements ranged from pride to apprehension and appeared to the investigator to lie at the base of some of the tension.

The second and third grade teachers were anxious to please, to do a good job, but were working with little direction and hence were apprehensive about what they were doing. The curriculum director knew only that materials from the State Department of Education had arrived for some kind of a pilot project. He wrote for further information from the State Consultant and forwarded a copy of the reply to the second and third grade teachers. He was not enthusiastic about the materials. He disliked his job, the district, and expressed pleasure that he was leaving.

The principal who had worked on the State Committee planning for the geography and history materials had not been given an opportunity to work with the consultant when Consultant number eight (VIII) was brought into the district. He did not have, nor could he find, a copy of the work done by the consultant. Three of the four teachers trying the materials were in his building. He expressed interest in what they were doing and encouraged them to use their own ideas.

As the second principal in the district at the time the project was funded had left at mid-year, his replacement had no knowledge of the project until the materials arrived two years later. A second grade teacher in his building was using the materials. He could give

her no help. Neither was he sympathetic toward the materials. He, too, said he was glad to be leaving the district.

No curriculum committee or special subject committees nor plans for such organization were, nor had been in effect within the district. The curriculum director or one of the principals occasionally sent a curriculum questionnaire to the faculty. Faculty meetings were not given to curriculum problems. The curriculum director and the former superintendent had sent out memorandums which told the teachers what to do. Materials, both basic and supplementary, were distributed directly to the teachers with perhaps a letter of explanation, and again at times no explanation was given.

III. SUMMARY OF THE COLLECTION OF DATA

This chapter has delineated the procedures used in delimiting the study and in gathering the data therein presented.

The five districts whose projects were described in the study comprised the entire population in the geographic area of urban school districts with funded NDEA Title III-B projects in the social sciences for elementary grades. Although four kinds of districts were represented and the composition of the supporting communities differed, NDEA funds allowed each district to engage in social science curriculum change which otherwise would not have been undertaken.

The ways the projects were initiated, accomplished and followed were described. It was seen that the funds allocated for each project were less than the amounts requested, but the four of the five districts made arrangements for additional or prolonged

consultant services so that the projects would more adequately meet the districts' needs. It was also shown that the projects marked a beginning of curriculum change in the social sciences in the districts whose projects were studied. Continuation of the projects was under way during the year of the study and plans for continued work were projected for the ensuing year through additional requests for NDEA Title III-B projects and through district allocation of funds.

This chapter showed the ways districts selected the participants for the projects using criteria which ranged from involving all teachers at a specified grade level to identifying and recommending teachers who possessed subject matter knowledge coupled with teaching skill. Teacher needs and wishes formed the basis for five of the six projects. Teacher interest and involvement were considered crucial to achievement.

Lines of communication were established and kept open in Districts A, B and C, as well as in District D for the first project year. Special effort was made to inform not only the participants but also the entire district personnel about the projects and their progress. Numerous devices were utilized to disseminate the information and to encourage wider interest and participation. Feedback to the consultant and the administration from the project participants was a vital part of the communication process and channels were provided for it. The effectiveness of the open channels of communication and feedback was shown in the increased number of teacher participants as the projects continued.

It was also clearly shown that the administrative organization

and leadership affected curriculum development and change. Where the district organization, as in Districts A, B, and C, provided for curriculum committees of teachers and administrators which operated outside the line and staff organization with functional leadership from line and staff officials, the projects expanded to include more teachers and enlarged goals. These districts also projected their plans to continue the work begun under NDEA Title III-B into the ensuing years. This was not the case in districts without such organization and where status leadership only was available. Vital to the successful organization in project development was the open communication between the curriculum committees and the line and staff officers.

The consultants became involved in the projects to the extent that each gave additional time to the districts. The consultants planned their presentations carefully to provide a maximum of teacher involvement. Only in District E was teacher involvement lacking and that was due to circumstances beyond the control of the consultant. The consultants were alert to the needs of the teachers and built ways of securing feedback into their presentations and into their operational agreements with the districts. It was also shown that the consultants were specialists in their fields and they were selected mainly from knowledge of their work from institutions of higher learning.

CHAPTER V

PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

When the discrete pieces of data for each project were listed, some relationships became apparent. Grouping the data wherever the relationships existed placed the districts and their projects into three categories.

The largest category included Districts A, B and C. These three districts exhibited commonality in the ways their projects began, developed and continued. They also continued their projects into ensuing years through additional NDEA Title III-B projects and through investment of their own resources.

District D was the only one in the study with projects approved for both of the two years of the study. For the first project nearly all of the same factors shown by Districts A, B and C could be identified. The second project for the following year, however, revealed significant changes by not being activated which warranted placing District D into a separate category.

District E, on the other hand, had very few elements in agreement with the other four districts, so a third category was established for the data from District E. The project dates plus the late arrival of materials placed the district in an unusual position.

The data from all of the projects studied further grouped themselves into consistent threads which could be discerned throughout all three categories of districts.

In a like manner data concerning the consultants were grouped. Consistent threads ran throughout which added to commonality of the pattern for the projects.

I. THE PROJECTS

Tables II through V show the three categories of districts and the factors or threads which revealed the structure of the process utilized by selected schools in employing consultants under NDEA Title III-B for bringing about changes in the instructional program of the social sciences.

Project Genesis

In Districts A, B and C, as shown on Table II, ten common factors were present in the genesis of the project proposals. All of the proposals were generated from the felt needs of the teachers as expressed through teacher committees. The teacher committees were part of the district structure for effecting curriculum development. They met regularly and represented special interests either in the social sciences or in furthering grade level communication and articulation within the district. The suggestions and requests from these teacher committees were reflected in the project purposes.

In each of these districts some staff member at the administrative level--principal, curriculum director, or consultant--was assigned to work with the teacher committee. The administrative representative on the committee was responsible for assisting the teachers in achieving their goals, not for directing their activities. The administrator was the direct line of communication between the

TABLE II
FACTORS IN THE PLANNING STRUCTURE OF THE SELECTED
URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS FOR NDEA TITLE III-B
PROJECTS FOR CONSULTANTS IN THE SOCIAL
SCIENCES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

DISTRICTS A, B, C	DISTRICT D	DISTRICT E
1. Active teacher committee 2. Teacher committee requested the project 3. Teachers formulated the purposes for the project 4. Project planned to meet the expressed needs of the teachers 5. Administrative leadership continuous 6. Title III-B project continuous with district program 7. Teacher committee augmented by selective procedures	Active teacher committee Teacher committee requested the project Teachers formulated the purposes for the project Project planned to meet the expressed needs of the teachers Administrative leadership discontinuous District program discontinuous No selective procedures: planned for all elementary teachers	No teacher committee No teacher request Administrator planned Project to meet needs of a State committee Administrative leadership discontinuous No district program Project for a discontinuous group of second and third grade teachers

TABLE II (continued)

DISTRICTS A, B, C	DISTRICT D	DISTRICT E
8. Letter of invitation sent to selected group	Letter of invitation sent to all teachers	No invitations
9. Meetings open for other interested teachers and administrators	Meetings open for other teachers at specified grade levels	No groups of teachers
10. Groups remained constant	Two groups	No groups of teachers

teacher group and the administrative level where the district authority for decisions and expenditures resided. With this channel open to the teachers, their needs as well as their suggestions for filling these needs could be made known to those with the authority to take action for meeting the teacher requests. The administrative representative had more mobility than the teachers and was therefore able to follow the necessary procedures to bring a project to fruition. This included such responsibilities as clearing the way for a proposal to be submitted and outlining the teachers' ideas so that a project could be written and in some instances, writing the project; contacting and securing the services of the desired consultant; arranging for meeting times and places; and securing the materials requested by the teachers.

Although the number of days allocated by NDEA Title III-B were less than the number requested, these districts took action to keep their planned projects intact. In each instance for Districts A, B and C, the Title III-B funds provided the impetus for a more inclusive program. In the eyes of the district personnel, the accomplishment of the project goals was not limited to the few days of consultant time. The project was a part of a planned program that one or two days of consultant service could not consummate. The Title III-B project was the encouragement needed to begin a program in the social sciences.

In addition to the nucleus teacher committee which initiated the project proposal, Districts A, B and C instituted procedures for augmenting the committee to secure greater classroom gains from the consultant services by involving more teachers. District A instituted

a voluntary sign-up of teachers willing to have more intensive work.

A questionnaire was circulated in District B to ascertain interest.

District C requested recommendations from building principals for interested teachers who exhibited strength in the social studies. The steering committee for each teacher group then selected teachers to augment the original groups for participation in the total project.

Letters of invitation, signed by the steering committee chairman and/or the administrative representative on the committee, were sent to the total list of participants. Attendance, however, was not limited to the augmented group. The meetings were open to any other personnel in the district who were interested in the project. Districts B and C by announcements at administrators' meetings and through invitations urged administrators within their districts to attend.

During the accomplishment of the total programs, including the NDEA Title III-B allocation plus district sessions, the same groups of teachers were involved.

District D followed most of the foregoing procedures for the first project, but differed in four respects which appeared to influence the longevity of the program. In 1965-1966 the district had an active teacher committee in the social sciences which had formulated the project according to the needs of the teacher group. The committee also had administrative leadership. However, the administrative responsibility for curriculum in the district was changed during the school year that the first NDEA Title III-B project in the social sciences for elementary grades in the district had been accomplished.

A secondary principal was made Assistant Superintendent in charge of instruction in March 1966. The first project for elementary grades had been accomplished prior to his appointment.

Further changes in the central administrative unit were made during the next two years. Although the central staff members remained much the same, their responsibilities were shifted and their titles were changed. The administrative representative for the 1965-1966 project moved into the position of Director of Certificated Personnel. Even though the committee formulated a continuing project for the following year, the staff member who conferred with Consultant number seven (VII) to plan for the 1966-1967 project was Coordinator of Instructional Materials. No one in the district could recall and no record was available as to who was given the responsibility for the second year project. The Title III-B funds allocated the district for 1966-1967 were not used and the project within the district was dropped. Responsibilities had been shifted to the extent that the entire program was lost.

In accomplishing the 1965-1966 project, District D did not apply any selective procedures for participants. The sessions with the consultants were planned for all of the elementary teachers. Five sessions in all were held for two groups: three for primary teachers and two for middle and upper grade teachers. All teachers were asked to attend the project sessions. Although attendance was voluntary, the teachers were expected to attend the meetings for their own grade levels.

In District E a different situation appeared. No teacher com-

mittees were active in the district. The project was generated through the interest and involvement of the superintendent and one of the elementary principals in a history and geography program for primary grades being developed at the State level. The superintendent volunteered the second and third grades of District E for trial use of the materials. The application for Title III-B funds was made for this purpose. The development and completion of the materials at the State level was slower than anticipated so the pilot program as planned was not possible during the fiscal year of the funding. The consultant, however, did spend the two allocated days in the district, but did not work with any teachers. Before the consultant came into the district, one of the districts' two elementary principals moved to another school district. The other principal, who worked with the State Committee on the development of the geography and history materials, remained in the district and continued his active participation with the State Committee. However, when the consultant was in the district, the principal did not work with him. The consultant worked alone and had contact with the superintendent only. Other than the superintendent, no teachers nor principals knew what the consultant had done. When the materials arrived two years after the project was completed, no one, not even the principal who had worked on the State Committee, knew what had happened to the guidelines which Consultant number eight (VIII) had prepared to help the teachers in the pilot program. Since no district personnel other than the superintendent had known what the consultant did, his work was lost to District E.

The superintendent of District E had moved from the district

during the school year 1967-1968--the year the history and geography materials arrived. In addition, a new curriculum coordinator had been hired in the district on a part-time basis. The curriculum coordinator had no information regarding the project, the materials, nor the plan for the district to pilot the program other than a one page letter from the Consultant in Curriculum Development from the State Department of Education which accompanied the materials on arrival. The letter made no reference to the Title III-B work which had been done nearly two years previously. The discontinuity in administrative leadership had an adverse effect upon the continuity and follow-up of the project. The program from which the project was developed was not part of the district program as District E had no curriculum development organization or plans. It was a separate entity planned to help the State project.

The above described situation left the teachers in the district in 1967-1968 trying to implement a program in which they had had no part in developing nor for which they had had no preparation. The materials from the State had arrived so belatedly that two of the key persons who had knowledge of the program's purposes were gone from the district. Those who remained of the central staff were unaware of the consultant's work or of the guide he had prepared. The detailed guide which might have been of help to the teachers was nowhere to be found in the district.

The foregoing summary of data regarding the ways the projects began confirm the findings reported in the literature. For all of the districts financial assistance from an external source, NDEA Title

III-B, stimulated the initiation of change. And as shown in Chapter III, innovativeness varies directly with financial resources.

Districts A, B and C established through district organization a climate in which innovation and change could occur. Each of these districts had functioning curriculum committees with administrative (status) leadership assigned to work with the committees. In the committees the status leaders performed as functional leaders, helping the committee members clarify goals and find ways to achieve the goals. The committees in requesting the NDEA project and in formulating project goals exhibited the first two stages in Rogers' classification of stages in diffusion: awareness of newer programs and interest in finding out about them. The project goals also indicated that committees intended to progress in their change efforts to either adoption or rejection of the ideas being explored in the project. The administrative representatives working with the teacher groups became involved in the projects and worked actively to consummate group goals. Because the impetus for the projects in the three districts came from the teachers--an internal source of change--the literature reviewed indicated that activity coming from such a source could be expected to result in beneficial change. It appeared, therefore, that the projects in Districts A, B and C would result in a beneficial change in the social science curriculum which could be termed improvement of instruction as stated in the purposes of NDEA Title III-B.

In District D the same situation as in Districts A, B and C applied for the first project. The organizational changes within the

system due to reorganization from the district unification, begun during the first project and increased in intensity during the second year, caused the energies of the district to be focused elsewhere than on the continuation of the project, and the district, as a district, discontinued effort to change the social science curriculum. The leadership shifts and the movement within the status positions of the organization did not allow for continuance of the innovative effort. The result was loss of goal focus in curriculum development and role ambiguity in leadership. Under these conditions, beneficial change could not occur according to the findings reported in the literature so change that could be termed improvement of instruction appeared to be unlikely in this district.

District E followed a line and staff pattern of authority with particular emphasis upon the hierarchial aspect of that organization where the flow of power and mandate was from the top down. The NDEA Title III-B project for consultant help was an administrative decision entirely with no teacher involvement. It was not a response to an awareness, nor to an interest or felt and expressed need of the teachers. No temporary system involving any staff or faculty was established as the consultant worked alone. Lacking teacher involvement the project had little chance to effect any change. Further indications of minimal change were evident in the district's goal ambiguity, low interdependence of faculty and administration, role invisibility for the teachers, and no means of two-way communication within the school system. The chain of in-district line changes represented by the changes in personnel, served further to confuse the goals of the

district making beneficial change difficult. It appeared, then, that District E's project for improving instruction in the social sciences had little chance for achieving this goal.

Project Development and Growth

The factors affecting the development and growth of the NDEA Title III-B projects for the selected urban school districts studied in this investigation are shown in Table III. By referring to the Table, it may be seen that Districts A, B and C proceeded in similar fashions.

The teachers involved in the consultant sessions expressed the desire for more time from the consultants. The districts complied with the requests in varying ways. Where funds were available, the districts hired the consultants to return at the district's expense. District A hired each consultant for three more days. District B invited the consultants to be part of the summer workshops, however, Consultant III had other obligations which interfered. Consultant IV did return for the workshops and also for additional planning time. He donated his time to the district. He was again invited to the district for the fall of 1968.

District C was somewhat more ingenious in a solution for getting more of the consultant's time. An agreement was made with Consultant V to work half-days instead of full days, thereby doubling the number of days in the district and doubling the number of teacher contacts. In addition to the NDEA Title III-B days, Consultant V gave the district more time which was used in planning sessions and in a media workshop and display. In order to continue the social

TABLE III

FACTORS IN THE SELECTED URBAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS AFFECTING
THE DEVELOPMENT AND GROWTH OF NDEA TITLE III-B
PROJECTS FOR CONSULTANTS IN THE SOCIAL
SCIENCES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS

DISTRICTS A, B, C	DISTRICT D	DISTRICT E
1. Teachers requested more consultant time	Teachers requested more consultant time	No teachers involved
2. Same consultants returned	Same consultant returned	Consultant did not return
3. Districts used own funds	District used own funds	No district funds expended
4. Formulated new goals	Formulated new goals	No new goals
5. Planned to achieve new goals	New goals discontinued	No new goals
6. Program accelerated and/or expanded	Program discontinued	Materials arrived in 1967-1968: consultant work of 1966 not available to teachers
7. Additional Title III-B requests submitted for 1967-1968	Additional Title III-B requests submitted for 1966-1967	No continuation
8. Title III-B requested for 1968-1969	No further Title III-B requests	No continuation
9. Some released time for participants	No released time	No time with teachers

studies work begun with the Title III-B project of this study, District C retained Consultant V for the next two succeeding school years: one year, 1967-1968 with another NDEA Title III-B project; the next year, 1968-1969, at district expense.

All three districts followed their initial NDEA Title III-B projects with additional requests. Districts A and C whose initial projects were approved for 1966-1967 followed with requests for 1967-1968. District A's second project was funded late in the fiscal year--June 1968. It was unknown at this writing if it were used. District A also submitted two applications for elementary grades for Title III-B funds--one in economics and one in geography--for the school year 1968-1969. At the time of this writing it was unknown if the applications were approved.

District C's second request, as noted above, was funded and accomplished using the service of the same consultant as in the previous year. As District C planned to continue with district funds no application for Title III-B funds for elementary social sciences for 1968-1969 was made.

District B's initial project was funded in the 1965-1966 year. In 1966-1967 and again in 1967-1968, the district submitted three Title III-B social science projects for the elementary grades, all of which were disapproved. The district, however, was not easily discouraged as three Title III-B projects for elementary grades in history, geography and civics were again submitted for 1968-1969. In the meantime the district was continuing work on the social science course of study and on the development of units for elementary grades.

As the work with the consultants progressed, the teacher groups began to expand and redirect their projects so new goals were formulated in Districts A, B and C. Although District A had projected a three year scheme for achieving the program objectives, it was soon apparent that the teachers wanted more information and materials than anticipated and also desired a faster diffusion of the processes, so the objectives were altered for the project to continue at an accelerated pace.

In District B, between the session with Consultant III and that with Consultant IV, the direction of the planning for the workshops had changed as the committee had decided upon two rather than one summer workshop. Accordingly, the Title III-B project goals had to be changed to conform with the new directions.

As a result of the sessions with Consultant V, District C teachers found that achieving their first objectives led to newer objectives. For example, the objective to use multiple texts so that the textbook would not be the single major source of instruction led to the goal of placing greater emphasis upon the multi-sensory approach to learning. Thus it was that the objectives of the Title III-B project for the year of the study, 1966-1967, underwent transformation into new goals which were incorporated into the 1967-1968 Title III-A and III-B projects and into district long-range planning.

To move from the immediate goals to the newly formulated ones in Districts A, B and C entailed new plans to encompass procedures necessary for accomplishment. Thus it was that Title III-B applications were made by all three districts for ensuing years.

In A, B and C districts some of the teachers were given released time for the projects. In District A, all teachers participating were released for one full day and taught a minimum day for another NDEA project time. Districts B and C, however, allowed released time only for the steering committee. District B also made some informal arrangements within buildings to free participants from one hour of class time for each NDEA consultant day to work with the consultants.

The difference between District D and Districts A, B and C came in one aspect, namely the discontinuation, of the project or program developed. In District D, the program was progressing, the consultant had given service which had been highly praised in the district, Consultant VI had been hired to return for one meeting at district expense, and another project for Title III-B funds had been written, submitted, and funded according to the newly developed goals. Then the continuation of the program and project was lost, and the program was not reactivated.

District E offered a contrast to the other four districts. No teachers were involved with the consultant who worked alone in the district. The district expended none of the local funds. Nothing was done following the consultant's work. In fact, when the booklets which were the basis of the proposed pilot project of the Title III-B application finally arrived two years later, the curriculum coordinator had to write the State Department to find out why they had been sent to the district. None of the consultant's work was to be found in the district, let alone be distributed to the teachers. Even then, the teachers were

given no orientation as to what they were to do other than a short note from the district curriculum coordinator telling them to use the materials according to the one paragraph of instruction in an enclosed letter from the Consultant in Curriculum Development from the State Department of Education.

It may be seen from the foregoing summarization of data that the findings of the study confirm those of the literature in the following respects.

In Districts A, B and C the funds from NDEA Title III-B stimulated still further activity within the districts for change. Increased interest on the part of teachers encouraged the districts to invest some of their own funds in continuing the project or in related projects. As was seen in the review of literature, investments of local funds is an influence facilitating change. Districts were also inventing new ways to meet a felt need when they hired consultants for additional time, and when they arranged with consultants to serve half-days rather than whole days in order to have the consultants in the district more times and spread the visits over a longer period of time. By continuing consultant services for a longer period of time and by requesting additional NDEA projects, the districts indicated movement into the later stages of the diffusion process--trial and adoption. Other evidence of the progress into later stages of change was evidenced when goals were elaborated, redefined and refocused.

Temporary systems were put into effect in Districts A, B and C which centered around a selected group of teachers. The systems devised involved the teachers at an ever increasing level. The

teacher groups had established the project goals which reflected their own felt needs. The teacher committees were set upon the accomplishment of a specified task and the energies of the group were directed toward the defined change.

Since temporary systems are designed to bring about change it will be well to look at the features of the temporary systems which these districts incorporated into their sessions with the consultants during the consummation of the projects. Time limits were set for accomplishing the goals as set forth in the NDEA Title III-B project proposal; the goals were defined at the beginning of the project; specific personnel were invited to enter the system; time and locale for the sessions at a place outside the regular classroom situation were provided; the number of participants was limited; goal redefinition occurred; and communication and power structure existing within the district was utilized.

At the end of the project year there was no evidence of rejection, evidence only of wanting to proceed further in the change process and advance to the latter stages of the process. Furthermore, the evidence showed that more teachers were willing and anxious to be included in the project. All of this tended to support the contention that beneficial change, resulting in improved instruction in the social sciences will result from the efforts introduced by the NDEA Title III-B projects in Districts A, B and C.

In District D the foregoing applied for the first project. District unification, however, with the resultant changes in the administrative organization and the disrupted leadership apparently blocked

the second project. District D's discontinuance appeared not because of failure of the processes and systems put into effect to induce change, but because a more encompassing change gripped the entire educational system in the district. This, according to the readings reported in Chapter III, is an effective block to change efforts.

No evidence was apparent in District E to support the premise that the consultant services in the social sciences under NDEA Title III-B would induce change or improve instruction in the social sciences. Since none of Consultant VIII's work could be located in the district, his contribution must be counted a loss. The only possible evidence to support the premise might be the receipt of the belated materials and a sincere effort on the part of the teachers to try to use them. Such use and subsequent evaluation of the materials, however, assumed that the consultant's work was available to the teachers. The conclusion seems then to be that no change occurred as a direct result of the consultant services, but the project itself, because it also involved the introduction of new materials which were published and sent to the district two years later, may bring about some kind of change in the instruction of the social sciences in District E.

District Organization Affecting Curriculum

It was in the area of district organization that wide differences among the districts appeared. The ways in which the districts were organized and worked to bring about change in the curriculum defined the categories markedly. Every factor as shown in Table IV pointed to differences from column A, B and C to column D, and from both

TABLE IV

DISTRICT ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION AFFECTING SOCIAL
STUDIES CURRICULUM CHANGE IN SELECTED SCHOOL DISTRICTS
WITH THE AID OF CONSULTANT DAYS FINANCED
IN PART BY NDEA TITLE III-B FUNDS

DISTRICTS A, B, C	DISTRICT D	DISTRICT E
1. Administration responsibilities remained constant	Fluid administration - continuous reorganization	Administrative changes (internal tensions)
2. Stabilized school district organization	Recent unification	Unknown (i. e., unverified) position on unification
3. Committee structure for curriculum development continuous	Committee structure for curriculum development discontinuous	Administrative control
4. Administrative responsibility for curriculum defined and continuous	Administrative responsibility for curriculum discontinuous and amorphous	Administrative responsibility discontinuous
5. Teachers had role in curriculum development	Teachers role discontinuous and amorphous	Teachers had no role
6. Curriculum plans projected	Curriculum plans not projected	Curriculum plans administratively projected
7. Functional leadership within the status positions	Functional leadership submerged in status role reorganization	Status leadership

columns A, B, C and D to column E.

Districts A, B and C had definite staff structures existing within them for curriculum development. As shown in Table IV the structure involving teachers working through committees with some form of administrator-representative who was responsible for facilitating the committee's work and responsible to the superintendent. In District A the building principals were delegated curriculum responsibility by the superintendent in a decentralized approach to curriculum development. They worked district-wide with the teachers in a specified curricular area or grade level. District B held to a line and staff interpretation of organization using a centralized approach to curriculum development. The Deputy Superintendent in District B held major curriculum responsibility, a staff position, with assistance from directors and coordinators in specific fields. It was through his office that curriculum activities and committees were authorized and activated throughout the district. He was able to delegate authority to principals interested in the area to act as liaison in the teacher-curriculum-committees and to involve teachers district-wide at all grade levels in the activity. District C operated more in line with a centrally-coordinated approach. The district employed a curriculum director who in his staff position worked in line with the Assistant Superintendent in charge of Instruction and the Superintendent. He was able to involve teachers district-wide in curriculum activities.

To secure active teacher committees he asked for the building principals to recommend the teachers to be invited to participate

in the activity. District A had added building principals as each new elementary school had been built, but had not increased the central staff. District B had added a new position to the central staff: that of curriculum specialist. District C had had a replacement in the consultant staff in the central administrative unit. In all three districts, however, the positions had not been changed nor had they had redefinition even though personnel changes had been made. Not only did Districts A, B and C have stable administrative units, but the school district organizations were also at a stability level. Unification had either been completed or was not considered as an immediate possibility.

In District D, however, the story was different. Since the district unified on July 1, 1965, the administrative officers had been shifted in position and responsibility each year. Only the district superintendent's position had retained continuity. Although most of the central office staff had been in the district for some time, the same was not true for their tenure in any one position. Even the character of the positions had been subject to change although the titles may have remained constant. With the central staff in a continual state of change, district-wide teacher committees had been ineffective and curriculum operations had been carried on at the building level rather than at the district level.

Making District D into a unified district had been a traumatic experience to the administrative and supervisory staff. The amorphous character of the administrative organizations described above was a direct result of district unification and continuous reorgani-

zation. The numerous changes had led to confusion. Energies which ordinarily would have gone into curriculum development had been expended in effecting the reorganization. In the spring of 1968 the feeling was that the lines of communication and the systems approach had been nearly completed for the district so that the attention of the administrative staff could begin to focus in other school district problems including those of curriculum.

District E with a small administrative staff had not involved teachers in planning for curriculum change beyond an occasional questionnaire sent from the superintendent or curriculum director to get opinions from the teachers. Changes also occurred in the administrative offices. Responsibility for the Title III-B project had been shifted between the superintendent and one principal. New administrative personnel who replaced those who had resigned, had not been informed of the project nor of its purposes. The teachers knew nothing about the project nor the consultant's work. The lines of authority were clear in that directives were sent to the teachers regarding curriculum and teachers' ideas were not solicited. These changes and the type of authority exercised caused internal tensions within the district.

A new superintendent was appointed in the spring of 1968 and two of the other administrative officers left the district. As a result little stability was exhibited in District E at the time of this writing. The current position of the district on unification was also unknown, but the former superintendent had been opposed to unification or other district boundary changes.

The following interpretations regarding change in the districts studied may be made from the data cited on district organization when related to the findings in the literature reported in Chapter III.

As noted earlier, the educational system must have certain characteristics for change to take place. It appeared that Districts A, B and C exhibited some of those characteristics. Although Districts A, B and C developed curriculum through differing approaches, their district organizations were so structured that a climate favorable for change was established. Curriculum committees with teachers as members were operative. Both status and functional leadership was available. Persons occupying staff positions who were responsible for curriculum were shown to be functional leaders in accord with the term as used in the literature. Those who also held line positions and who were involved in the projects demonstrated functional leadership as well as status leadership. Through the committee structure and the leadership supplied in the district the teachers had a role in curriculum development which indicated involvement. Involvement is basic to curriculum development and is an important influence for change.

From this, it may be concluded that the districts exhibiting these characteristics would effect a change in the social science curriculum from the development of their projects funded by NDEA Title III-B. Districts A, B and C should experience change in their social science curriculum.

Little more can be said about District D's organizational structure as at the time of the study changes were still being made.

However, in all the role changing in the central office and in the district, status positions were filled and at the time of the writing of this report, functional leadership to resume curriculum development had not emerged. It is not probable, therefore, that curriculum change for the purpose of improving instruction in the social sciences with an NDEA Title III-B project occurred.

District E exhibited the stifling result of strict adherence to an authoritarian hierarchy in the administration. Functional leadership was either lacking or inoperative at the administrative level. As stated in Chapter III, the status leader must acquire the skills of the functional leader or the district becomes an autocracy wherein curriculum change is unlikely to occur. Teacher involvement was neither sought nor encouraged, so functional leadership from that level was not possible. It is improbable that change occurred in the social science curriculum as a result of the NDEA Title III-B project in District E.

A paradox exists in the matter of organizational stability. Stability in organizations was viewed as a force retarding change in the literature reviewed. However, this study brings out the probability of beneficial change occurring from the efforts within the stable school districts as shown by Districts A, B and C. But in District D where the organization was totally upset and had neither stability nor continuity, curriculum change was discontinued. Change efforts were lost in District E where strict authority reigned in the person of a superintendent who had remained in the district for many years (representing stability) and moved to another school a year and a

half after the NDEA Title III-B project.

Communication

In Table V all of the items of communication stated for District D were for the first project only. Since the second project was not accomplished, only negative statements could have been recorded for it. District E had only negative statements as there were no participants and there was no need for any kind of communication.

The committee meetings between sessions with consultants were included as communication items as they allowed free discussion which resulted in indicating to the consultants what the next session's agenda should be. It was also in these smaller group meetings that discussion leading to redefinition of goals took place.

Continuous checking on process and on the emergent needs of the participants came not only in the between session meetings, but also in the meetings with the consultant when time was allowed for suggestions and questions.

One of the major factors blocking change and innovation was seen in Chapter III as a lack of adequate communication not only between schools but also within schools. A criterion for the effectiveness of an organization in meeting the needs of personnel is the adequacy of its channels for communication and feedback.

In Districts A, B and C the channels for communication and feedback were numerous. Within the districts' organizations such channels were existent and utilized for the duration of the temporary systems established for working with the consultants. The existence of communication systems indicated an atmosphere in which change

TABLE V

ITEMS OF COMMUNICATION UTILIZED IN ACCOMPLISHING NDEA TITLE III-B
PROJECTS IN THE SOCIAL SCIENCES IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
OF SELECTED URBAN DISTRICTS

DISTRICTS A, B, C	DISTRICT D	DISTRICT E
1. Written invitation sent to participants	Written invitation sent to participants	None
2. Notices of meetings including agendas sent to participants in advance	Notices of meetings including agendas sent to participants in advance	None
3. Discussion of project at faculty and administrator meetings	Discussion of project at faculty and administrator meetings	None
4. Additional meetings held between sessions	Unknown	None
5. Consultant sessions allowed time for suggestions	Consultant sessions allowed time for suggestions	None needed - no participants
6. Return information received by consultant between sessions	Return information received by consultant between sessions	None
7. Evaluation reports sent to State Bureau of NDEA	No evaluation report sent to State Bureau of NDEA	Evaluation report sent to State Bureau of NDEA

could take place because as shown in the literature, creative organizations have open channels of communication and open channels also indicate "good organizational health."

The communication devices used--letters, notices, additional meetings, evaluation reports, etc.--all served to increase the visibility of those involved in the project. Increased visibility increases a feeling of status on the part of the individual which tends to lead to deeper involvement. These are important influences in inducing change.

These conditions led to the conclusion that the communication devices operative in Districts A, B and C would contribute to the desired changes in the social sciences which was the purpose in securing NDEA Title III-B funds.

The items in Table V for District D pertain to the first project only. Since the second project was not activated due to intervening influences, no entries were made for that project. Because the second project was planned to continue the first, and no local district action was taken to follow-up on the first, it must be assumed that the impact of the NDEA Title III-B project for inducing change as far as the district was concerned, was null.

In District E with no teacher nor other staff member involved in sessions with the consultant, none of the items of communication evident in other districts were used. The lack of communication in this case could have been one of the barriers to change and an influence acting against the project. This one item would lead to the assumption that any change to improve instruction in the social sciences

resulting from the NDEA Title III-B project would be highly unlikely.

Irrelevant Factors in the Projects

Two items of data collected seemed irrelevant to the study. The first had to do with the statement of project purposes on the application. Whether the stated purposes were for in-service or for program planning and evaluation, the accomplishment of projects took the same forms. District A had stated only in-service purposes; District B stated only program purposes; and District C stated both purposes. Even so, all three districts planned their proposals, structured their consultant sessions, accomplished their goals, exerted similar kinds of leadership, and used the same kinds of communication channels. The process involved in utilizing the Title III-B consultants followed similar lines regardless of the declared intent of the project for curriculum change--training teachers and extending their knowledge, or rebuilding the curriculum for the district.

In District D, where one project stimulated further activity and the other died, the consummated project stated only in-service purposes and the inactivated project stated both. From the evidence collected, it was apparent that the second project was not activated for reasons other than the goals it contained or the way it was written.

The second irrelevant factor was the time of the year the curriculum sessions were held. It appeared that the time of year that the sessions were held had little bearing on the duration of the project or on the structure of the processes involved. Although District A's consultants were paid by NDEA for days served in the spring, consultant sessions were spread throughout a school year. District B

held their sessions with consultants in the spring and concluded the project in the summer. District C spread their sessions throughout the school year. District D's first project was in the fall. District E had the consultant in June after school closed and the teachers were gone. With this spread in time utilization, it seemed that the other factors were more important than the time of year the consultant worked in a district.

Possible Factors

It is possible that the size of the district, if defined in terms of average daily attendance, has some bearing on the processes utilized by districts when employing consultants through NDEA to bring about curriculum change within a district. Since District E's average daily attendance was 910 for the school year 1965-1966, the year of the project, it is possible that the district was too small to structure adequately for consultant services. The school was too large to receive the direct services in curriculum from the Office of the County Superintendent, but not large enough to support the services necessary for meeting the curriculum needs of the teachers and children.

The kind of community may also have a bearing upon the organization for the utilization of consultant services as interest in the progress of the school from the surrounding and supporting community is reflected in the program of the school. Districts D and E who were not able to continue their programs beyond the Title III-B project served rather homogeneous communities as compared with Districts A, B and C. District D was mainly a suburban community and E was largely agricultural; whereas Districts B and C combined suburban

with industrial populations and District A combined agricultural with suburban populations as well as being influenced by a state university.

Insufficient Information

The following data yielded insufficient information to determine whether certain items influenced the processes of consultant use. Even though such data formed patterns, they remained inconclusive. No contrast was evident from which to draw conclusions.

It was possible that the time of day for meetings could have had some significance. Since expediency within the districts dictated the times of day the sessions were held, the cases studied did not have sufficient variation nor contrast to verify this as a factor to be considered in consultant use.

The data on the length of each session with the consultants was insufficient to produce a discernible pattern. The importance of spacing between sessions was also unsupported as a determining factor. Districts C and D arranged with the consultants to have more sessions of one half-day consultant time distributed throughout the year in lieu of fewer sessions of a whole day of consultant time. Districts A, B and E utilized consultant services on full day scheduling. Lack of consistency regarding length of sessions and spacing between sessions within categories--A, B, C; D; E--points to lack of sufficient information to make any generalizations or to draw any inferences.

A third factor dealing with the local arrangements for use of consultants which lacks corroborative evidence in this investigation was the place where the sessions were held. All were held in an elementary school library or multi-purpose room. The literature

stated that the location of the participants in a temporary system was of importance, and that isolation from the ordinary environment was important to reduce the resistance to change. If the consultants were brought into a district to induce change of some kind in the instructional program of the elementary school, then consideration of the physical location of the sessions should have had significance. However, the evidence from the cases studied was insufficient to determine if that was a factor of effectiveness in consultant use.

There was also insufficient information to draw any conclusions as to which kind of consultant sessions were effective in the continuation of a project. Consideration of the varying lengths of the sessions and the number of meetings with the consultant affected the format of the sessions. The only thing that could be said about the kind of meetings with the consultant was that most of them could be called workshops. Few demonstrations with pupils were held and procedures other than workshops were nonexistent.

Since the districts varied widely in their long-range curriculum planning, no pattern of continual planning emerged. Without more information, it was unwise to generalize about the possible effects of long-term planning upon the structure of consultant use.

None of the projects studied had any kind of formal evaluation. The informal evaluations which were held were open discussions with the committees. The evaluations which the districts sent to the State Bureau of NDEA were signed by someone from the district who had not been involved with the project except perhaps to write the project for the committee or to send in the evaluation. Evidence of

any real measurement or evaluation of the projects was lacking. Since evaluation reports to the State were not mandatory some of the districts did not comply with the request to send in the informal report. (District D, one of the districts in this study, sent no report).

II. THE CONSULTANTS

The data from the consultants who served the six projects during the two year period of the study represented a wide range of education, experience, and age.

Consultants' Education and Experience

Table VI summarizes the education and experience backgrounds of the consultants. The table does not show further formal educational work beyond the last granted degree.

Table VI shows that the eight consultants had received seventeen degrees from thirteen colleges and/or universities. Two of the consultants had only one degree, three had masters' degrees and three had received their doctors' degrees. It was interesting to note that the doctoral degrees were all earned in the 1960's even though the ages of those who earned them ranged from 37 to 55. Three of the consultants were in academic fields, one in guidance and psychology, one in audio-visual education, two in teacher-education, and one in elementary teaching. All were experienced in some way with public schools. Consultant III was the only one who had not taught at some level below the college level. Five of the consultants at the time of the study taught at the higher education level: three at state colleges and two at junior colleges. One of the junior college instructors moved to a

TABLE VI

EDUCATIONAL AND EXPERIENTIAL BACKGROUNDS OF THE EIGHT CONSULTANTS
WHO PARTICIPATED IN NDEA TITLE III-B PROJECTS IN THE FIVE
SELECTED URBAN DISTRICTS STUDIED

District Served	Consultant	Age	Institutions Granting Degrees	Degree	Date	Major Field	Present Position	Previous Experience in Public Schools
A	I	28	University of the Pacific	B. A.	1961	Education Soc. Sci.	Teacher (on leave)	Elementary teacher
A	II	63	Chico State College Stanford University	B. A. M. A.	1957 1960	Psychology Guidance	Director ESEA, Title I Project	Guidance Counselor
B	III	52	University of Illinois University of Illinois	B. A. M. A.	1947 1949	Geology	Associate Professor, Phys. Sci.	College
B	IV	44	Sacramento State College Sacramento State College	B. A. M. A.	1949 1960	Education Science and Soc. Sci.	Director Audio- Vis. Ser.	Elementary teacher
C	V	50*	University of Alberta University of Oregon Stanford University	B. Ed. M. Ed. Ed. D.	1948 1949 1962	Education	Associate Professor, Education	Teacher, Principal, Director of Curriculum

TABLE VI (continued)

District Served	Consultant	Age	Institutions Granting Degrees	Degree	Date	Major Field	Present Position	Previous Experience in Public Schools
D	VI	65	Pasadena College	B. A.	1925	History	Instructor, Junior College	H. S. Teacher, Elementary and High School Administration
D	VII	37	University of California Santa Barbara	B. A.	1957	Education	Associate Professor,	Junior and Senior High Teacher
			San Diego State College	M. A.	1961	and Social Sciences	Education	
			University of California Berkeley	Ed. D.	1964			
E	VIII	55*	University of California Los Angeles	B. A.	1938	Geography	Associate Professor,	Junior High Junior College
			University of California Los Angeles	M. A.	1946		Geography	
			University of California Los Angeles	Ph. D.	1960			

* Estimated

position at a university after his service as a consultant. Two were directors: one of an ESEA project, the other of audio-visual services. One was a fourth grade teacher.

The foregoing information pointed out that the schools seeking a consultant were more interested in the specialty of the consultant than in the degree status he had earned or in his standing as a teacher or academician. The time when the degree was granted did not appear to be as influential in consultant choice as what the consultant had done recently. His contacts with teachers in the local districts; his involvement with federal projects or programs; and his relationship with the State Department of Education all seemed to be more significant in choice of consultant than the degree which he held.

Another factor which the foregoing paragraphs underscored was that the consultants were in positions which allowed for arranging time to serve districts' Title III-B projects. The college teachers were able to work around their class schedules for going into districts as consultants. The directors were at an administrative level where they could arrange time to work in other districts by rearranging their schedules. The classroom teacher arranged with her district for a specific number of days to work for the Curriculum Research Laboratory at San Francisco State College. Her consultant days were drawn from that time.

The ages of the consultants at the time of this study ranged from 28 to 65. Five of the consultants had each had approximately twenty years of experience in the schools and one had had less than ten. The length of service in the schools tended to underscore the

value of experience in serving schools as a NDEA consultant.

Each consultant was either a member of some college staff or had some fringe relationship with a college or university. This finding supported those reported in the literature that most of the consultants were drawn from college faculties. Consultants III, V, VI, VII, and VIII were teachers at the college and junior college levels. Consultant II had taught extension classes for the University of California; Consultant I was working with a research project for a state college; and Consultant IV was a resource person for a state university. Evidently then, contact with teachers through college classes, either pre-service or in-service, influenced the choice of consultant. Most of the recommendations for consultants came through college contacts made by teachers involved with the local projects.

Character of Consultant Use

According to the literature, when districts offer specialized help to teachers and increase the teachers' involvement in a project they are facilitating the change process. In that the consultants on these projects made a conscious effort to do just that, the consultants may be termed as acting as change agents. Furthermore, the consultants varied their presentations so that five of the modes of diffusion were utilized in their work with the districts (tell, show, help, involve, train). The ways in which the consultants worked with the groups to give them expert help and to involve the teachers are summarized in the following paragraphs.

The consultants made definite plans to involve the teacher participants in the sessions. All of the consultants who worked with

teachers, regardless of whether the project application stated purposes of in-service or of program planning, were demonstrating some process which the participants wanted to use, i. e. inductive approaches, teaching strategies, problem analysis and the like. In most cases the consultant briefly presented theory and then involved the teachers in the use of the theory. The consultants made a conscious effort to involve the participants in the process under study.

Even when the consultants demonstrated the use of specific strategies, skills or materials with children as did Consultants III and VI, they later did the same thing with the teacher groups.

The consultants made wide use of informal discussions. Most of them used the open-ended question to get the discussions started and to bring focus upon the teachers' problems. Each of the consultants utilized the questions and problems brought up in the discussion to give direction to future presentations and discussions. The information given under "Character of Follow-Up" indicates that the items of communication as shown in Table V, page 159, were used by the consultants. Not only was the information so gained used to build upon the teachers' interests, but also to give an indication of the extent of the consultant's own interest and involvement in the project. The information received from the participants was further utilized in building the agendas for succeeding sessions.

In their presentations and discussions with the teacher-participants, the consultants made use of audio-visual aids. Transparencies were most commonly used, with maps and globes used almost to the same extent. Other aids used less frequently included tapes, films,

flat prints, charts, and photographic equipment.

Time was an influence mentioned previously in regard to the process of change. When we look at the time the consultant spent in preparing for and working with the teacher groups we are viewing a new dimension--an aspect which was not covered in the literature. The time involvement and commitment of the district and of the teachers was discussed as being important in the change process. Time must be allowed for learning about the innovation, diffusion takes place over time, the district must provide time for the teachers to participate are some of the dimensions previously discussed. Now, however, the concern is with the amount of time the consultant, acting as change agent, actually spent to help a district achieve its goals when working in a temporary system where the time limit is specified and the compensation is also specified according to time limits.

In most cases the preparation time for a day's consultation exceeded or equaled the presentation time. The "In Session" times indicated on Table VII for Consultants I, II, III, IV and VIII are for a full day's work in the district; for Consultants V and VI the hours indicate a half-day of work in the districts. Variation in the length of time served for a full or half-day was due to such factors as (1) district arrangements for teacher attendance; (2) the consultant's available hours for scheduling sessions; (3) the job to be done; and (4) the consultant's willingness to serve the district on a half-day basis rather than a full day.

The table shows the hours the consultants spent for one session. As Consultants V and VI are shown for half-day reimbursement, to get

TABLE VII

THE STRATEGIES EMPLOYED AND THE TIME INVESTED BY THE CONSULTANTS
WHO PARTICIPATED IN THE NDEA TITLE III-B PROJECTS IN THE
SOCIAL SCIENCES IN THE FIVE SELECTED URBAN
SCHOOL DISTRICTS STUDIED

District Served	Consultant	Character of Consultant Sessions	Audio-Visual Devices	Time Spent (hours per session)			Character of Follow-Up
				Preparation	In Session	Follow-up	
A	I	Presentation of teaching strategies Open-ended question to start discussion Informal discussion Discussion techniques and strategies used	Transparencies Charts	6	5	2	Evaluation with district personnel
A	II	Presentation of theory Role playing Discussion	Tapes Tape-scripts	3	6	1-1/2	Review of tapes made by participants Selecting and sending material to district
B	III	Demonstration of map skills with pupils and with teachers Open-ended questions to start discussion Discussion	Maps	4	4	0	-----

TABLE VII (continued)

District Served	Consultant	Character of Consultant Sessions	Audio-Visual Devices	Time Spent (hours per session)			Character of Follow-Up
				Preparation	In Session	Follow-up	
B	IV	<p>Showed transparency made in unusual way</p> <p>Demonstrated process for making the transparency</p> <p>Participants made transparencies</p>	<p>Transparencies made by different processes</p> <p>Photographic equipment</p> <p>Duplicating equipment</p>	8	5	20	<p>Arranged for other resource people to be in the district</p> <p>Helped with summer work-shop</p>
C	V	<p>Took a problem census</p> <p>Demonstrated problem analysis with the teachers</p> <p>Discussion</p> <p>Demonstrated teaching strategies for the social studies with principals; with teachers</p>	<p>Maps</p> <p>Globes</p> <p>Transparencies</p> <p>Films</p>	4	4*	10	<p>Writing the scope and sequence as it developed</p> <p>Reviewing the teachers' work</p> <p>Planned next agenda</p>
D	VI	<p>Showed illustration (print or transparency)</p> <p>Asked for close observations of the picture</p> <p>(continued)</p>	<p>Flat Prints</p> <p>Transparencies</p> <p>Maps</p> <p>Globes</p>	6	2-1/2*	3	<p>Answered questions raised during and after sessions</p> <p>Planned next agenda</p>

TABLE VII (continued)

District Served	Consultant	Character of Consultant Sessions	Audio-Visual Devices	Time Spent (hours per session)			Character of Follow-Up
				Preparation	In Session	Follow-up	
		Developed geographic concepts through discussion after the observation Open-ended questions Demonstrated the observation skill and concept development with pupils; with teachers					
D	VII	Project not activated (2-1/2 hours spent to plan project)		0	0	0	
E	VIII	Worked alone		10	8	25	Wrote detailed guide relating new materials to district resources

* Half-days

a true picture of the amount of time they spent for one day's work the figures for these two consultants must be doubled. Table VII then shows the total amount of time spent by eight consultants for five full days of work. These eight consultants spent 138 hours of time for five days of NDEA Title III-B allocated time and money, which averages 27 hours and 42 minutes of time spent for each day of service to a district. Evidently, the amount of time spent on a project is not as important to the consultant as the project itself. The pay factor does not seem to be the motivational one for the consultants. Remuneration may have been the original inducement or it may have influenced the consultant to accept the position, but from the amount of time spent following acceptance of the job, pay received had little bearing upon the amount of time the consultants were willing to spend to help the districts attain the project goals. It follows, then, that the job or project was of more importance to the consultant than the hours it took to complete or the amount of pay they received for their efforts.

Conditions within the districts facilitated or hampered the impact of the consultants on the projects. In Districts A, B and C where the administrative organization provided for curriculum committees involving both teachers and administrators, promoted functional leadership, opened channels of communication, invested local funds in the project and encouraged teacher participation and involvement, a climate was established in which the consultants could perform their functions effectively and further project goals. In District D, the unification with its resultant reorganization diverted district energies into other channels so that no evaluation of the consultant's contribution

was made, and any impact he had during the project was lost. The only indication of the effectiveness of the consultant's services was that following the series of meetings with him the district submitted another project to continue work in the social sciences. It may be inferred from this that the consultant had done his work effectively enough to generate a desire to continue the program. In District E the consultant had no opportunity to become involved with teachers. Since his work never reached the teachers, the guide that he prepared for their use was unused and his efforts were lost. From this it may be inferred that his services as a consultant to District E were ineffective.

Irrelevant Factors

The age of the consultant appeared to have no relationship to the development of the project nor to the way in which the consultant worked with the teachers. Ages ranged from 28 to 65, with districts commending all of those who served them.

The degree status of the consultant seemed irrelevant to the accomplishment of the projects. The important factor was the competency of the consultant in the desired area rather than the graduate degrees held. Table VI, page 166, shows the degrees each consultant held.

Insufficient Information

From the information on Table VII it appears that some of the consultants spent much more time on the projects than others. Also, the preparation time differs considerably. Some interesting possibilities as to why this should be so come to mind. Whether it is due to

the personality of the consultant, his method of operation, his involvement with the success of the project, the kind of assignment he had, the subject matter involved, or whatever, the information gathered in this study is too meager for more than conjecture.

Although the consultants had done similar kinds of services for other districts, none of the consultants could positively state that his services for the projects investigated had resulted from his consultant work in another district. Neither did any of the districts verify a request for a consultant because of his service to another district. Yet the demand for the services of these eight consultants in other districts for local workshops and NDEA Title III-B projects raises the question of whether there could be a relationship between service as consultant to districts at district expense and requests for the same person as a NDEA Title III-B consultant. The data collected in this study were inadequate to make any inference in this area.

III. SUMMARY OF THE PRESENTATION OF DATA

This chapter has shown that for the districts in this study the NDEA Title III-B funds allocated to projects in the social sciences provided the stimulus to initiate change. It was further shown that factors within the districts served to stimulate or to block change. The data also indicated that beneficial change could be expected in Districts A, B and C whereas little or no change could be expected in Districts D and E as a result of the NDEA projects in the social sciences.

Districts A, B and C established a climate in which change could occur. These districts had active curriculum committees working under functional leadership from the administrative level. The teachers had a visible role in curriculum development wherein their ideas as well as their needs were acknowledged. The importance of open communication was recognized and numerous channels were employed to keep members of the school system at all levels informed of the project. The districts set up effective temporary systems for the accomplishment of the projects in which tasks, goals, time limits and personnel were specified. District support for the project was demonstrated by adding local funds to those from NDEA and by arranging for more consultant time and consultant contact with teachers. Underlying the entire climate for change and the effectiveness of the systems employed to induce change was the district organization and the kind of leadership exerted by the top administrators. The line and staff organization was designed in these districts to provide for curriculum development through leadership from the status officials as well as through teacher involvement. Staff positions carried curriculum responsibility. These positions were filled by persons with both functional and status ability.

In District D the change effort initiated by the NDEA Title III-B project was blocked by district reorganization. The functional leadership was withdrawn from the curriculum committees as a more encompassing change within the district took place. The systems set up for accomplishment of the first project were abandoned as the new district organization was emerging, and the change effort in the social sciences

Districts A, B and C established a climate in which change could occur. These districts had active curriculum committees working under functional leadership from the administrative level. The teachers had a visible role in curriculum development wherein their ideas as well as their needs were acknowledged. The importance of open communication was recognized and numerous channels were employed to keep members of the school system at all levels informed of the project. The districts set up effective temporary systems for the accomplishment of the projects in which tasks, goals, time limits and personnel were specified. District support for the project was demonstrated by adding local funds to those from NDEA and by arranging for more consultant time and consultant contact with teachers. Underlying the entire climate for change and the effectiveness of the systems employed to induce change was the district organization and the kind of leadership exerted by the top administrators. The line and staff organization was designed in these districts to provide for curriculum development through leadership from the status officials as well as through teacher involvement. Staff positions carried curriculum responsibility. These positions were filled by persons with both functional and status ability.

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in preparation for workshops than the time allocated by the project or contracted by the local district. The effectiveness of the consultants seemed to be closely allied with teacher contacts in the districts. A natural conclusion would be that effective projects utilized effective consultants and that ineffective projects utilized ineffective consultants. However, the data do not support this assumption conclusively as they also showed that factors outside the control of the consultants blocked the projects in Districts D and E. In District D it was the district unification with its resultant reorganization rather than the consultant's ability which marked the project as ineffective. Other data, such as hiring him for additional sessions, attest to his effectiveness in the project workshops. But in the case of District E where the consultant had no teacher contacts and the materials he prepared for the teachers were lost, no data was available to attest to his effectiveness as a consultant. It must be concluded, therefore, that the least effective project and the least effective consultant were in District E.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

I. SUMMARY

The purpose of this study as stated in Chapter I has been to find the influences that contributed to bringing about curriculum change in selected educational agencies which employed consultants in the social sciences through NDEA Title III-B projects. This study has not been a survey. The procedure employed has been the field study, a process concerned with a thorough account of the processes under investigation rather than their typicality. Data has been collected in depth in the form of case studies and has focused upon the interrelations and interactions taking place within the projects and the agencies involved in accomplishing those projects.

The long history of Federal Aid to Education provided a context and a perspective for understanding the NDEA legislation. The purposes of the National Defense Education Act were set forth as well as the plan under which NDEA operated in the State of California. The primary purpose of NDEA Title III was to bring about change in instruction in designated critical subjects of the curriculum.

The literature surveyed in Chapter III brought out that change in any part of a school system was affected by numerous factors. Some influences and forces facilitated change while others served to block change. Forces affecting change were shown as internal or

external, with the internal forces tending to be more effective in facilitating change.

Influences which tended to facilitate change included financial aid from outside sources; good organizational health as evidenced through goal focus, communication adequacy and power equalization; and adequate functional leadership.

Influences which blocked change were the converse of the facilitating forces. They included such factors as the lack of financing; an organization not geared for change as shown by lack of leadership of a functional nature, goal ambiguity, low interdependence and technological investment; institutionalization of the school; a weak knowledge base; and the lack of a communication network. The lack of a change agent in the field of education slowed change in the schools.

The data collected and presented in Chapters IV and V revealed influences operating within the districts which affected the accomplishment of their projects.

It was seen that the NDEA funds stimulated each of the selected districts to attempt a change in the social science curriculum. The districts applied for Title III-B funds for consultant services to initiate changes in the social sciences. Funding by NDEA corroborated feeling within the districts that their projects had merit and thus reassured, districts were encouraged to proceed.

The consultants acted as change agents. They brought new ideas into the districts; used a variety of methods to diffuse the innovative ideas they were presenting; and deliberately planned their sessions to involve the participants.

It was seen that although the consultants acted as change agents in the districts, other influences were at work which served either to facilitate or to block change efforts.

In Districts A, B and C a climate where change could occur existed. The organization within these districts for curriculum development was based upon the assumptions that change occurs when the people involved generate the action and that functional leadership is essential for curriculum change. Teachers, working in curriculum committees, had a role in curriculum development. The committees were representative of the total district, and the membership had been selected by some criterion such as grade taught, special interest in the subject, or teaching proficiency. These districts also assigned administrators, either principals or curriculum director, to leadership roles in the committees. In these roles the administrators demonstrated their ability to perform as both status and functional leaders. In their role as functional leaders, they showed knowledge of the subject matter and were able to help the committees in defining purposes, clarifying goals, locating materials. As status leaders, they were able to facilitate the procedures within the districts for teacher involvement and for moving the plans of the committee forward. Committee progress led to redefinition of goals and requests for enlarging and continuing the project. To comply with the committee wishes to continue the project, the districts invested their own funds in addition to those funded through NDEA Title III-B.

Adequate channels of communication throughout the school system, not only to those directly a part of the project, but also to

other personnel in the district served to maintain interest on a district-wide, all-level basis and to provide the needed feedback for the consultants to care for the needs of participants as such need arose during the accomplishment of the project.

Apparently the approach to curriculum development, whether centralized, decentralized, or centrally-coordinated had little or no influence on curriculum change so long as curriculum development committees were part of the organization and could operate in an equalitarian, self-generating fashion outside the line and staff hierarchy, so long as the channels of communication were open, and when the delegated administrative responsibility could be discharged on a functional basis. In these districts the consultants were able to perform their functions as change agents. Their sessions were effective in that the projects expanded during the project year and continuation of the change effort carried into the ensuing years with increased numbers of teachers.

The influences which block and inhibit change were shown in the other two districts. District D lost the impetus for curriculum change when the district's energies were diverted into reorganization efforts. At that time leadership roles became ambiguous with functional leadership conspicuously absent, communication was upset, interdependence of teachers and administrators was diminished, and the teachers became much less visible in roles outside their own classrooms. The impact of the consultant's efforts was lost.

District E, although for different reasons, exhibited similar lacks which served to impede change in the social sciences. Impetus

for curriculum change was apparently blocked at the administrative level. In this district, strict adherence to the status role of the administrative leaders, with emphasis upon the chain of authority from the top down, acted as an inhibiting influence for curriculum change. The authoritarian nature of the line and staff organization allowed no two-way communication between teachers and administrators. Neither did the organization allow for more than status leadership from any of the administrators, not even from the curriculum coordinator who usually is assigned an advisory and functional role rather than a line and staff position for developing curriculum.

Teachers were not involved in curriculum development and so held an almost invisible role. Interdependence as well as interaction of the school personnel was almost completely lacking. The consultant's efforts were blocked by the foregoing conditions. Total lack of teacher contact with either the consultant or his prepared materials combined to make his contribution for change in the social sciences in that district ineffective. It must be remembered, however, that forces external to the school district--i. e., tardy receipt of materials--also intervened. Had they arrived on time the impact of the blocking influences cited in this paragraph may have been different.

II. CONCLUSIONS

The study has looked in depth at the NDEA Title III-B projects in selected urban school districts in California for influences which contributed to curriculum change in the social sciences in elementary grades. From an analysis of all the data gathered, the

following conclusions are applicable to the districts studied. These conclusions are in accord with the literature surveyed.

1. The NDEA Title III-B funds initiate curriculum study.
The project money is an external force for change.
2. Curriculum change initiated by NDEA Title III-B activities is facilitated within a district when additional local funds are invested in the project.
3. Curriculum development responsibilities in successful districts are outside the line and staff organization, but channels of communication are always open to and from the line and staff officials.
4. The leaders, i. e., superintendent, curriculum director, principal, are interested in curriculum and possess functional leadership qualities.
5. Curriculum change through the agency of consultant services tends not to take place where there is discontinuity of administrative staff or of administrative staff duties assigned within the district. In other words, consultants do not effect change without administrative help.
6. All other things being equal, change occurs whether the administration of the proposed change is centrally or decentrally organized.
7. Teachers are active participants in successful curriculum development projects. Line and staff members stimulate teachers to become active in change efforts, but the teachers continue working only when the leadership is essentially

functional as to knowledge of the curriculum study and/or channeling of communication and the social atmosphere is equalitarian.

8. Curriculum development occurs when interested teachers are carefully selected to work for curriculum change and other teachers are made to feel wanted in the study.
9. Maintaining open channels of communication between consultants and teacher participants, line and staff participants, and all instructional and line and staff members who are not participating in the curriculum changes taking place is essential in bringing about change.
10. The consultants are effective change agents if they are specialists, have flexible time schedules, bring new ideas to the staffs of districts served, and cause teachers to be active participants.
11. The competence and experience of a consultant are more important criteria to a district requesting his services than are his educational degrees or his age.

III. IMPLICATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

From the findings of this study it appears that further studies may come from the areas listed below. The following suggestions for study are those which the writer believes need further investigation as well as those from which further studies may come.

1. A design for formal evaluation of the curriculum changes needs to be developed so that evaluation of the effectiveness

of the change efforts may be made. Such evaluation would indicate whether the curriculum changes were valuable or not.

2. A depth study in selected school districts of the sociological factors within the supporting community may reveal insight into the influences affecting curriculum change in the local school district.
3. A study of the relationships between the size of a district (in terms of enrollment) and district efforts to induce curriculum change may yield information relevant to the question: Are some school districts too small to administer curriculum change effectively?
4. A survey of the person-to-person differences among consultants might reveal significant variants that did not appear in this study where all consultants seemed to function well if not blocked by imposed conditions.
5. A survey on how a consultant is selected to serve a district may help identify some of the characteristics a district needs in a change agent.
6. Extensive surveys of many districts might verify certain of the items that this limited study suggests.

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APPENDIX

APPLICATION B

Bureau of National Defense Education Act Administration
 California State Department of Education
 721 Capitol Mall
 Sacramento, California 95814

**APPLICATION FOR CONSULTANT SERVICES UNDER NATIONAL DEFENSE
 EDUCATION ACT, TITLE III-B**

Name of applicant agency _____
 Address _____
 City _____ County _____
 Superintendent _____ Phone _____
 Project director _____ Title _____
 Address _____ Phone _____

I. IDENTIFICATION OF SERVICES REQUESTED (check applicable items)

- A. School level: Elementary _____ Secondary _____ Junior college _____
- B. Critical subject: civics _____ economics _____ English _____ geography _____ history _____
 modern foreign language(s) _____ reading _____ science _____
- C. Services are requested for the purpose of:
1. Inservice education (college credit not allowed), which may include:
 - a. Demonstration of new methods, content, techniques and equipment _____
 - b. Review of recent curriculum trends _____
 - c. Staff orientation to new programs purposes and content _____
 - d. Other (specify) _____
 2. Program planning and evaluation, which may include:
 - a. Review and evaluation of present program _____
 - b. Review of new programs or curriculum developments _____
 - c. Identification and selection of program ideas _____
 - d. Definition of program objectives _____
 - e. Other (specify) _____
- D. Estimated number of consultant days required to provide this service _____
- E. Name of requested consultant (if known) _____
- F. Is service requested between July 1 and September 30 of the year in which the application is submitted? Yes _____ No _____

II. EVALUATION INFORMATION

To assist in evaluation of your application, provide the following information on additional pages as needed:

1. A brief statement of your problem
2. A brief statement of your plan to resolve the problem
3. If this is a cooperative project involving other districts or county offices, supporting evidence of their involvement
4. Information pertinent to this application not given elsewhere

III. LETTER ASSIGNING PROJECT NUMBER

Bureau of National Defense Education Act Administration
California State Department of Education
721 Capitol Mall
Sacramento, California 95814

(Type name and address of district
superintendent in this block)

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Project number (assigned by NDEA).....

Your application for consultant services in the field of, under provisions of NDEA, Title III-B, has been received and assigned the project number indicated above.

Your request will be reviewed and action taken as soon as possible.

If any questions arise concerning its approval, we will arrange to discuss them with you or your representative prior to final action.

This letter is not to be construed as an approval, but is for acknowledgment purposes only.

When corresponding about this project, please refer to the project number indicated above.

Very truly yours,

FRANK D. LARGENT, *Chief*
Bureau of National Defense
Education Act Administration

By
(NDEA representative)

o

APPENDIX B
1968-69
III-B Fiscal Year 1967-68

DISTRICT _____ PROJECT NO. _____
COUNTY _____

TO: Elementary _____ Foreign Language _____ Reading _____
Secondary _____ Mathematics _____ Geography _____
Jr. College _____ Science _____ Civics _____
Audio-Visual _____ English _____ History _____
Industrial Arts _____ Economics _____

Criteria To Be Used In Evaluating III-B Projects
(Write in "Yes" or "No")

1. Does proposal indicate evidence of careful planning? _____
2. Does it conform to the over-all framework of state plan, i.e.? _____
 - a. The curriculum commission's "Strands Report"
 - b. Language instruction (perspective and prospectus)
 - c. Recommendation of the Statewide Science Committee
 - d. Committees with reference to the new subject areas
3. Does it fit specific needs? _____
4. Are those affected involved in planning? _____
5. Is provision made for continuity of instructional program? _____
6. Does it represent effective use of consultant time? _____
7. Does the size of the district justify the number of days requested? _____
8. Should adjacent districts or the county office be involved? _____
9. Is requested consultant qualified? _____

Identify other qualified consultants in the proximity of the applying district.

If a specific consultant has not been requested, please suggest an appropriate one.

APPROVED _____ DISAPPROVED _____ EVALUATED BY: _____

COMMENTS: _____

APPENDIX C

Questionnaire Used to Gather Data from Selected Urban
School Districts on NDEA Title III-B Projects in the
Social Sciences for Elementary Schools

Name of School District _____

Number of Project _____ Grade Levels _____

Subject Areas _____

Verification of Project Proposal

1. What were the stated purposes of the project?

Inservice

_____ Demonstration of new methods, content, techniques and equipment

_____ Review of recent curriculum trends

_____ Staff orientation to new programs, purposes and content

_____ Other (specify) _____

Program planning and evaluation

_____ Review of new programs or curriculum developments

_____ Review and evaluation of present program

_____ Identification and selection of program ideas

_____ Definition of program objectives

_____ Other (specify) _____

2. What specific district need was the project to fill?
(Rationale for submitting the project.)

_____ a. Sensitize teachers or staff to recent trends

_____ b. Update teachers' knowledge of subject matter

_____ c. Introduce new teaching techniques

_____ d. Promote more effective use of textbooks, library books, current information, audio-visual materials, TV, etc.

_____ e. Need for a new course of study in the social sciences

_____ f. Need for new teachers guide or other instructional aids for teacher use

_____ g. Other (specify) _____

3. How did the project relate to the district plans for the social sciences? What activities preceded the project? _____

4. Was a teachers guide, statement of program objectives, unit, or course of study to be developed? Were printed materials to be an outcome? Please describe.

5. What subject areas were involved? For what reasons were these selected?
- ____ a. history
 - ____ b. geography
 - ____ c. economics
 - ____ d. civics
 - ____ e. combination of above
 - ____ f. processes involved in teaching social sciences
- _____

6. What was the project to do that is not normally provided by district resources? _____

- How would this affect the instructional program?

7. Was the project related to a III-A project? _____

8. Who was to participate in the sessions with the consultant?
- ____ a. teachers
 - ____ b. administrators
 - ____ c. others (specify) _____

16. Where were the sessions to be held?

- ☐ a. classroom at appropriate grade level
- ☐ b. auditorium in an elementary school
- ☐ c. multi-purpose room in an elementary school
- ☐ d. conference room at the central office
- ☐ e. restaurant, hotel, or similar accommodation
- ☐ f. other (specify) _____

17. What was the consultant to do?

- ☐ a. demonstration teaching
- ☐ b. conduct workshop with teachers
- ☐ c. give lecture, follow with discussion
- ☐ d. visit classes
- ☐ e. prepare and produce teaching materials
- ☐ f. other, or combination of above (specify) _____

18. How many days of consultant time were requested? _____

19. How many days were allocated? _____

20. How was the project to be evaluated. _____

Actual Accomplishment of the Project

1. How many days was each consultant used? _____

Were the allocated days sufficient for your project?
Please explain. _____

Did you use all of the days? _____

If not, please explain. _____

Did you need and request more days? _____

Was your request granted? _____

Did you use the additional days? _____

2. Did you secure the consultant(s) requested in your project? _____

3. What did the consultant do?

____ a. demonstration teaching

____ b. conduct workshop with teachers

____ c. conduct workshop for administrative staff

____ d. give lecture and conduct discussion

____ e. visit classes

____ f. demonstrate innovative techniques

____ g. other, or combination of above (specify) _____

How was this set up? _____

4. Where were the sessions held? _____

5. At what times of day were the sessions held?

- ☐ a. in the morning
- ☐ b. between one and three p.m.
- ☐ c. from 3:30 to 5:00 p.m.
- ☐ d. from 4:00 to 5:30 p.m.
- ☐ e. from 7:00 to 9:00 p.m.
- ☐ f. Saturday morning
- ☐ g. from 4:00 to 9:00 p.m.
- ☐ h. other, or combination of above (specify) _____

6. How many sessions was each participant expected to attend?

7. How were participants selected for the project?

- ☐ a. appointed
- ☐ b. voluntary attendance
- ☐ c. other (specify) _____

8. How were participants invited?

- ☐ a. letter, personal
- ☐ b. verbal invitation from administrator or consultant
- ☐ c. announcement in news letter or school bulletin
- ☐ d. flyer, poster, etc.
- ☐ e. other (specify) _____

9. Who participated in the sessions?
- ☐ a. teachers from this district
 - ☐ b. administrators from this district
 - ☐ c. invited participants from county office
 - ☐ d. invited participants from other districts (identify)

10. What, if any, qualifications were required for participation?
- ☐ a. teaching at appropriate grade level
 - ☐ b. outstanding teacher of social sciences
 - ☐ c. teacher to be trained to teach others
 - ☐ d. participants were to attend all sessions
 - ☐ e. participants were to work with their building faculty after attending sessions
 - ☐ f. participants were to contribute to the development of instructional materials
 - ☐ g. other (specify) _____

11. How were participants informed of the purposes of the sessions?
- ☐ a. by letter
 - ☐ b. by flyer, poster, etc.
 - ☐ c. through the school news bulletin
 - ☐ d. announced in session by the project director
 - ☐ e. outlined by the consultant in a lecture
 - ☐ f. other (specify) _____

 - ☐ g. no information given to participants

12. How were teachers given time to participate?
- ___a. substitutes hired
 - ___b. principal took the class
 - ___c. minimum days held
 - ___d. meetings held after school hours - no special arrangements necessary
 - ___e. other (specify) _____

13. How many participated in each session? _____
in the total project? _____
- How many were from outside the district? _____

14. What kind of notices were sent within the school district to announce each session? _____

15. What communication channels were in effect between sessions?
- ___a. director available to all participants
 - ___b. consultants (district) followed-up on sessions
 - ___c. minutes of the meeting were distributed to participants
 - ___d. small groups met between sessions
 - ___e. other (specify) _____

16. What provisions were made for feedback from the participants?
- ___a. evaluation form at each session
 - ___b. scheduled conferences with director
 - ___c. other (specify) _____

17. Did the consultant provide the desired services?

18. In what ways did the project deviate from the original proposal? For what reasons?

19. How was the project evaluated?

20. Did the project, as accomplished, fulfill the purposes outlined in the proposal?

Did you develop printed materials or develop instructional aids?

- ____a. units (please give titles and grade levels)

- ____b. course of study (give grade levels) _____
- ____c. program objectives
- ____d. teachers guide (subject and grade level) _____

- ____e. other (specify) _____

21. What fringe benefits did the project accomplish?

Follow-up of the Project

1. What has been done to follow-up the project?
 - _____ a. another project has been submitted
 - _____ b. consultant hired at district expense
 - _____ c. inservice committees working in the district
 - _____ d. pilot program(s) now in progress
 - _____ e. extension classes brought into district
 - _____ f. subject matter consultant hired for the district
 - _____ g. course of study being revised
 - _____ h. teachers guide developed and in use
 - _____ i. new materials made available to teachers
 - _____ j. other (specify) _____

2. Would you follow the same procedures in another project?
How would they change? _____

3. Would you want the same NDEA consultant to continue working in your district? For what reasons? _____

4. Do you have a curriculum director? (Who in your district has curriculum responsibility?) _____
 What is his background? _____
 What are his duties? _____

5. Does your district have a committee for curriculum? _____
 Who is on the committee and what are the duties? _____

6. How far do you project your curriculum study and/or development in your district? _____
- _____

7. How will a new Framework for Social Sciences affect your curriculum development plans? _____
- _____
- _____

APPENDIX D

Questionnaire Used to Gather Data from the Consultants
Who Served in Selected Urban School Districts With
NDEA Title III-B Projects in the Social Sciences
for Elementary Schools

Name of Consultant _____

District Served _____

Project Number _____ Grade Levels _____

Subject Areas _____

1. What is your present position and title? _____

2. How did you become an NDEA consultant for the social sciences? _____

3. Did you hold the same position and/or title when you became a consultant for NDEA? _____

when you served on this project? _____

4. How many NDEA Title III projects have you served? _____

Where were they? _____

How many days did you serve on each project as an NDEA consultant? _____

5. What is your special subject field? _____

How did you develop this competency?

___ a. college or university training

___ b. district or county inservice

___ c. own initiative and study

___ d. experience (on the job)

___ e. other _____

6. Where did you receive your Bachelor's Degree? _____

your Master's Degree? _____

your Doctor's Degree? _____

(Please give dates for your degrees.)

7. When were you asked to be a consultant on this project?

Who requested your services?

Who made the contact with you?

How was the contact made?

___a. telephone

___b. letter

___c. visit

___d. other

How had the district heard about you?

8. Did other consultants also serve the same project?

How many?

Who were they?

How did you complement each other?

9. How many days did you serve the district?

When, during the school year, were the sessions held?
Please give dates, if possible.

10. How was your time used by the district?

___a. whole days

___b. half days

Please explain.

11. How much time did you actually spend in the district?
- a. before sessions _____
 - b. during project sessions _____
 - c. after sessions _____
 - d. after the project ended _____
12. Approximately how much time did you spend on the project when you were not actually in the district?
- a. preparation _____
 - b. evaluation _____
 - c. follow-up _____
 - d. review of materials (district) _____
 - e. other (specify) _____
13. How did you arrange the time from your regular job to do the consultant work? _____
14. When and for how long during the day were sessions held? _____
15. In what way(s) did you help plan for the project or the project sessions? _____

16. What, specifically, did you do? Please explain.

- _____ a. demonstration teaching _____

- _____ b. workshops with teachers or administrators _____

- _____ c. lecture - discussion _____

- _____ d. visit classes _____

- _____ e. demonstrate innovative techniques and materials _____

- _____ f. other (specify) _____

17. How were the sessions organized? Please explain.

- _____ a. small groups (size and number of groups) _____

- _____ b. large group (how large) _____

- _____ c. for administrators _____
- _____ d. for teachers training for leadership _____

- _____ e. meetings open to all elementary staff _____

- _____ f. participants observed, listened. _____

- _____ g. open discussion _____

- _____ h. consultant demonstrated techniques (teachers asked to respond to the processes involved) _____

- ____ i. highly structured, formal meeting _____
- ____ j. informal, first names used _____
- ____ k. consultant supplied all materials _____
- ____ l. district supplied all materials and equipment _____
- ____ m. consultant used A/V aids in presentations (overhead, filmstrips, slides, tapes, TV, etc.) _____
- ____ n. teachers knew and were involved in the purposes for the sessions _____
- ____ o. agendas were distributed for each session _____
- ____ p. other (specify) _____

17. Who from the district took leadership roles in the sessions? Please describe the roles and give titles and/or teaching assignments. _____

18. Who attended the sessions?

- ____ a. teachers from the same grade level
- ____ b. teachers from the district from different grade levels
- ____ c. administrators
- ____ d. selected teachers (please give basis for selection) _____
- ____ e. district social studies committee
- ____ f. others (specify) _____

How many attended each session? _____ total? _____

19. What were the purposes of the project as you understood them?

- ____a. sensitize teachers or staff to recent trends
- ____b. update knowledge of subject matter
- ____c. introduce new teaching processes
- ____d. promote more effective use of textbooks, library books, current information, audio/visual aids, TV,,etc.
- ____e. develop a new course of study for social sciences
- ____f. develop teachers guide or other instructional aids.
- ____g. other (specify) _____

20. How were you informed of the purposes of the project?

- ____a. read the project
- ____b. told by the director of project
- ____c. letter
- ____d. other (specify) _____

21. What was your function in the project?

Inservice?

- ____a. demonstrate new methods, content, techniques, equipment
- ____b. review recent curriculum trends
- ____c. orient staff to new programs, purposes and content
- ____d. other (specify) _____

Program planning and evaluation?

- ____a. review new programs or curriculum developments
- ____b. review and evaluate present program (district)
- ____c. identify and select program ideas
- ____d. define program objectives
- ____e. other (specify) _____

22. How did you, as consultant, provide for the involvement of participants in attaining the objectives of the project?

23. Who in the district maintained liason between you and the participants? (sent out notices, chaired meetings, distributed summaries, made decisions regarding next meeting, etc.)

What was done?

24. In what ways have you followed the project? How do you know what has happened in the district since the project as a result of your leadership?

25. Have you been invited by the district for other services since the project? What kind of services?

Were these services at district expense?

as consultant for another NDEA project? when?

because of your own interest and at your own expense?

other?

What did you do in the "extra" sessions?

26. What gains (or fringe benefits) do you see resulting from the interactions developed by the project? for the district? for yourself? _____

27. What part did you have in evaluating the project? _____

28. Have other districts requested you as consultant because of your work on this project? _____

as an NDEA consultant? _____

as a resource person for the district? _____